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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN HUNGARY

by



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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Physical Education and Sport in Hungary," submitted by Alexander Kerestes in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.





## ABSTRACT

It was the purpose of the study to set the historical background of physical education and sport in Hungary and specifically to study their present conditions. In the course of the study, the history of the country and the history of its education system were also examined briefly. In order to facilitate both research and presentation, physical education and sport in Hungary were studied in the following three major periods: prior to 1918, between 1918 and 1945 and between 1945 and 1965.

Important developments took place in both sport and physical education in the period prior to 1918. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, sports were gradually introduced into Hungary by the aristocracy. The number of sport clubs increased rapidly, and by the turn of the century a flourishing sport life developed. In the late 1800's and the early 1900's Hungarian athletes began to achieve international reputation.

Physical education was made compulsory in the schools in 1868, but only in the secondary schools was the physical education program successful. The lack of qualified personnel and suitable facilities considerably hindered both the physical education and sport program of this era.

Due to the territorial and population losses and the armament restriction imposed on Hungary by the Treaty of Trianon, nationalism and militarism appeared in physical education and sport during the 1918-





1945 period. The government conceived of both physical education and sport as means with which to prepare youth for military training. A special semi-military physical education and sport system, called the Levente Movement, was established to ensure the military preparedness of youth.

The formal physical education programs and amateur sport received a great deal of assistance from the government as well. Physical education teacher training was instituted at the college level at the beginning of the period in 1925, and extensive physical education and sport programs were developed at the secondary school and college level. By the 1930's Hungarian athletes were among the world's best in many sports.

When, soon after World War II, the Communist Party took control of the Hungarian state, it immediately began to employ physical education and sport in support of its policies. According to the Communist philosophy of education, the main role of physical education and sport is to prepare the younger generation for productive labor and for the defense of the homeland. In harmony with this view, the state supports an extensive physical education and sport program at the formal educational institutions and the factories and offices.

In order to ensure continued successes in international competitions, the government provides sport schools for developing promising young athletes and special training camps for outstanding sportsmen on a regular basis. It is evident from the study that Hungary currently has a vigorous and successful physical education and sport program.



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

While there have been numerous studies undertaken on the physiological, sociological, or administrative aspects of physical education, only a relatively few have been done on topics related to the historical or comparative fields. This is particularly true of the studies on the physical education and sport systems of foreign countries. Knowledge about the origins, development, and present state of physical education and sport of other countries can help physical educators to evaluate their programs and see them in a proper perspective.

#### Purpose of the Study

It is the purpose of this study to set the historical background of physical education and sport in Hungary and specifically to study the period between 1945 and 1965.

#### Need for the Study

At present there is very little literature available in English on Hungarian physical education and sport. Van Dalen, et al.<sup>1</sup> devote only two and one-half pages to the topic and although the latest edition of the text was published in 1964, there is practically no information on the current structure and condition of physical education in Hungary.

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<sup>1</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Elmer D. Mitchell and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1956).



Rice, et al.<sup>2</sup> McIntosh, et al.<sup>3</sup> and Leonard and Affleck,<sup>4</sup> the only other available English language sources on the history of physical education, make no mention of Hungary in their works. The only extensive work on Hungarian sport in English was published by the Hungarian government in 1965.<sup>5</sup> While this book contains much factual material, in many ways, it is propagandistic and, therefore, it does not present an objective picture. Furthermore, it is restricted to the development of sports only and does not review the development of physical education. In view of the fact that Hungary has a long tradition of organized physical education and sport, a comprehensive work on Hungarian physical education and sport is long overdue. It is hoped that this study will significantly contribute to the existing knowledge in English on physical education and sport in Hungary.

### Definition of Terms

1. Physical Education: In this thesis the term physical education has been employed in two different contexts:

- (a) formal instruction in physical activities provided by an educational institution with the purpose of promoting bodily health;
- (b) all informal physical education programs and all sport

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<sup>2</sup>Emmett A. Rice, John L. Hutchinson, and Mabel Lee, A Brief History of Physical Education (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958).

<sup>3</sup>P. C. McIntosh, J. G. Dixon, D. D. Munro and R. F. Willetts, Landmarks in the History of Physical Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1957).

<sup>4</sup>Fred Leonard and George B. Affleck, A Guide to the History of Physical Education (Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1947).

<sup>5</sup>Jozsef Veto, (ed.), Sports in Hungary (Budapest: Corvina, 1965).





activities carried on in amateur clubs.

Since in the contemporary theoretical literature of the various periods, the term physical education is often used inclusively to cover both the formal physical education programs of educational institutions and sport programs of amateur sport clubs, the term physical education has been similarly employed in the discussion of philosophical concepts.

2. Sport: Physical activities carried on with the purpose of competition or recreation either within educational institutions or in amateur clubs.

## BRIEF HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL BACKGROUND

### History

Although there are no written records to prove such, on the basis of comparative linguistics and other indirect evidence, it is assumed by historians that the Hungarians, also known as Magyars, had lived east of the Urals around the beginning of the Christian era. They formed part of a group known to historians as Finno-Ugrians, and it is from this group that the Finnish, Estonian, Latvian and Hungarian peoples originate. Even today there are significant similarities between the languages of these peoples which serve to demonstrate their common origin. After a slow migration from east of the Urals the Magyars arrived at the Carpathian Basin and after some resistance overthrew the Moravian state of Svatopluk and founded the Hungarian state in 896.

After a century of nomadic-type living, during which the Hungarians conducted numerous raids into Western Europe, under the kingship of Stephen I (St. Stephen), the Hungarians adopted Christianity and with it



the feudal system and the art of agriculture. During the next 400 years the Kingdom of Hungary was one of the most powerful European states whose kings such as Louis the Great, Sigismund of Luxemburg, and Mathias Corvinus played an important part in European politics. In this era Hungary's connections with the West became stronger, not only politically but culturally, since many students took their education at the universities of Padua, Paris, Utrecht, and Oxford. It was Louis the Great who founded the first Hungarian university in 1367 in Pecs, while Mathias Corvinus, in addition to supporting universities, was also a generous patron of Renaissance learning, and under his rule the intellectual life of the country received a considerable impetus.

King Mathias' death in 1490 was followed by a period of internal strife under weak kings. The revolt of the peasants in 1514, which was brutally suppressed, greatly contributed to the disunity of the nation. And when the Osman Turks attacked Hungary there was only a small army to meet them. At the battle of Mohacs in 1526 this army was annihilated and the Hungarian king killed. Although the Turks did not permanently occupy Hungary at this time, the ensuing struggle for the kingship finally resulted in a three-part division of the country for 150 years. Ferdinand of the Hapsburg dynasty gained the western and northern part, the central portion was annexed to the Turkish Empire, and Transylvania remained semi-independent under the suzerainty of the Sultan. But during these 150 years it was in Transylvania that the national spirit was kept alive by many able princes, of whom, for example, Istvan Bathory was chosen by the Poles as their king (1571-1581).

In its long term effects, however, the tri-partite division not



only meant the end of political independence for Hungary for centuries to come, but also significantly retarded its economic and cultural development. Especially grave were the effects of the Turkish occupation. The regions held by them were devastated and depopulated to such an extent that when the Turks were expelled large numbers of new settlers were brought in, resulting in modern times in the problem of the minorities. The seriousness of the Turkish occupation can best be illustrated statistically. Before the Turkish invasion approximately 80-85 per cent of the country's population was Hungarian, and after the expulsion of the Turks, this figure was reduced to 45 per cent. As a result of the Turkish occupation, the Hungarians had become a minority in their own country.

A very significant consequence of the Turkish occupation was that the nation became weakened in order to oppose successfully the Hapsburgs in their attempts to gain permanently the Hungarian crown. Until 1723 the Hungarian crown was an elective one, even though all the kings since the tri-partite division were of the Hapsburg dynasty. However in 1723, soon after the expulsion of the Turks, the Hungarian Diet accepted the Pragmatic Sanction which joined the Hungarian crown with the crown of Austria. While the Hapsburgs continued to aim at the complete incorporation of Hungary into the Austrian Empire until the First World War, they were never completely successful in their efforts. During this period Hungary always retained a certain measure of self-government secured through stubborn political and often armed opposition.

The most significant "freedom fights" were Thokoly's revolt in 1681, the Rakoczi Rebellion in 1705, and the national revolution of 1848





under the leadership of Louis Kossuth. Although serious reprisals followed defeat in each case, in the final analysis these rebellions not only helped to develop national unity, but forced the Hapsburg rulers to adopt conciliatory policies. A good example of this is the Compromise of 1867 which followed the revolution of 1848. Under the Compromise, Hungary became a separate state which only the person of the Monarch joined to the Austrian Empire. He was called the Emperor of Austria and the King of Hungary. Only three ministries, those of war, finance and foreign affairs, were commonly organized. These ministries were responsible to special committees of the parliaments of both Austria and Hungary and for important matters needed the consent of the prime ministers of each state.

During the era between 1867-1914 significant developments took place in Hungary both culturally and economically. Literature, sculpture, art, music, theatre and architecture flourished and many exponents of these arts, such as Bartok and Kodaly, the noted composers, achieved world fame.<sup>6</sup>

Prior to 1867, it had been the policy of the Austrian government to prevent the large scale development of industry in Hungary and to make Hungary only a producer of raw materials. But after 1867 a great, and on the whole, fairly successful effort was made to develop industry and make Hungary a modern state. But while industrialization proceeded well, and

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<sup>6</sup> Carlile A. Macartney, Hungary: Short History (Chicago: Aldin Publishing Company, 1962), p. 182.



even agriculture made big advances,<sup>7</sup> very little was done to alleviate the lot of the poor peasant, many of whom had emigrated to North America; the figure for the peak year of 1907 for emigration exceeded 200,000.<sup>8</sup> In the political sphere, conditions resembled those in England in the nineteenth century before the last of the reform acts was passed, giving the vote to all male adults. Consequently, the nobility, by various electoral manoeuvres, controlled the government. The serious problem of the minorities was neither solved nor alleviated. One of the main reasons why the question of the nationalities could not be settled was the short-sighted policy of the Austrian government which aimed at creating discontent among the minorities in Hungary.<sup>9</sup> The assumption behind the policy was that if the Hungarians were troubled by their minorities then they would be unable to sever the remaining ties with Austria. But in the final analysis this policy was one of the direct causes leading to the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy.

At the end of World War I, the structure of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy completely collapsed. Inspired by Wilson's principle of self-determination, all of the neighbouring succession states began to occupy by force not only those regions in which their nationals constituted the majority of the population but even those in which they had no national residents. The Communist revolution in Hungary at that time prevented not only armed opposition but effective political representation at the

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 180.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 196.

<sup>9</sup>Denis Sinor, History of Hungary (London: George Allen and Unwin Limited, 1959), pp. 215-17, 259.



Peace Conference of 1918. And partly due to the general desire among the Allies to settle the peace treaties quickly and partly to the de facto occupation of Hungarian Territory by the various states claiming them, the Allies signed the Treaty of Trianon which deprived Hungary of 71.1 per cent of its territory and 61 per cent of its population. This peace treaty represented the repudiation of the principle of self-determination by the members of the Paris Peace Conference, since 3,218,579 Hungarians, a quarter of the total Hungarian-speaking population, were distributed among the various successor states. The attempts to revoke the Treaty of Trianon, which the whole nation considered unjust, led the country toward World War II in the course of the next twenty years.

Although this was the first time in 400 years that Hungary had gained complete political independence, she faced unprecedented economic difficulties after the Treaty of Trianon. This was mainly due to the great territorial losses which also resulted in the loss of traditional markets for industrial goods and in the loss of raw materials for industry. Hardly had the economic problems been overcome, when the Great Depression plunged the country into even worse economic hardship. But while the lot of the middle-class and even that of the workers improved considerably by the outbreak of World War II, the living standards of the agricultural workers remained extremely low.

The governmental system in Hungary at this time was rather peculiar. Technically, the country was still a monarchy, but in the absence of a king, Admiral Horthy, the last commander of the Austro-Hungarian Navy, was elected regent. He possessed the power of a monarch which included







the right to convoke, adjourn or dissolve Parliament and to appoint the Prime Minister. While he was an authoritarian, he was not a totalitarian.<sup>10</sup> Due to the use of such electoral devices as for example the public or open ballot in rural regions, abolished only in 1936, his regime was not truly democratic. But, it provided a certain measure of freedom in which only the extreme right or left was occasionally silenced.<sup>11</sup> And despite the general reluctance to significantly improve the lot of the poor, the benevolence of the system can be illustrated by the fact that it never had or needed a secret police.

Hungarian foreign policy between the two World Wars was of necessity directed by the desire to regain some of the territories lost by the Treaty of Trianon. Both Admiral Horthy and the leading politicians were wary of any policy which might have involved the country in another lost war on German's side, and for this reason, they continually attempted to gain the support of the ex-Allied Powers for a revision of the Treaty of Trianon. But of them, Mussolini's Italy alone expressed active support; whereas Britain showed sympathy only and France displayed open hostility to Hungarian demands. Consequently, in the absence of active French or British support and under the shadow of the menacing power of Hitler's Germany, Hungarian politicians steered an uneasy course between Nazi Germany and the Western Democracies. They were in an inextricable dilemma. On the one hand they aimed at the revision of the Trianon Treaty, but on the other hand, they wanted to preserve the neutrality of the country. But those two goals in the existing circumstances were

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<sup>10</sup> Sinor, op. cit., p. 290.      <sup>11</sup> Macartney, op. cit., p. 219.



incompatible. Lying in the path of Germany's south-eastward expansion, Hungary would have been involved in World War II either on the side or on the opposite side of Germany whether she wanted it or not. And under the influence of German pressure and promises and also in exchange for actual territorial compensation, finally, in April of 1941, Hungary reluctantly entered the war on the German side. And although Admiral Horthy had attempted on several occasions to make a separate peace with the West and later with the U.S.S.R., his attempts failed, and Hungary again became a loser in a disastrous war as an ally of Germany. The ultimate result of the war for Hungary was the introduction of Communism into the country by the U.S.S.R.

Although at Yalta the U.S.S.R. agreed to the holding of free elections and the setting up of a democratic government in Hungary, it was also decided that Hungary was to be in the Russian sphere of interest. Consequently, even though in the first elections in 1945 the Communists polled only 17 per cent of the total vote and even after considerable pressure and maneuvering, they only managed to get 22 per cent of the ballots in 1947, in two years' time, by using terroristic tactics supported by the Soviet Army, the Communists gained control of the government.<sup>12</sup> After the initial successes, in post-war years, due to the nationalization of industry, the economic situation in the country rapidly deteriorated. And the resulting economic decline combined with political oppression, led directly to the Revolution of 1956, which, as the previous

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<sup>12</sup>Imre Kovacs (ed.), Facts About Hungary (New York: Hungarian Committee, Waldon Press, 1958), pp. 5-66.



Hungarian Revolutions had been, was unsuccessful but not futile. Having realized that their former policy was self-destructive, the Communists of Hungary have since then relaxed their tight political control over the everyday life of the people and considerably raised the standard of living. As a result, life in Hungary is less bleak today than it was before the Revolution of 1956.

### Administration

Administratively the country is divided into nineteen counties. All economic, educational and political questions are dealt with through these counties. Within the counties, districts, cities and villages have a certain amount of authority, with the major cities being almost completely independent from the county administration. The authority within each administrative unit rests with an elected council whose president has wide powers of jurisdiction. While the administrative system may seem highly autonomous, in reality it is rigidly centralized because the control of the various ministries in charge of different aspects of the economy and of education reaches down to the lowest level of administration.

### Governmental and Political System

As is commonly known, both politics and government are exclusively dominated by the Communist Party. Though the pretence of elections is kept up, the Communist Party is the only legal political party and the choice the electorate has is simply to choose from a number of communist-sponsored candidates. Members of the Communist Party dominate in leading





positions of government and industry and no official decision is made without first being sanctioned by the Party elite.<sup>13</sup> Since the Revolution of 1956 the Party has somewhat relaxed its tight control, giving more personal freedom to the people. So while the number of Hungarians travelling abroad in 1951 was 18,696, it rose to 572,380 by 1963 and 29 per cent of these travelled to capitalist countries.<sup>14</sup> But despite its relatively lenient policies since the Revolution, the Communist Party is still in firm control and has not so far appeared to have changed its basic anti-capitalist philosophy.

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<sup>13</sup> Ernst C. Helmreich (ed.), Hungary (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1956), pp. 34-71.

<sup>14</sup> Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics, Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964), pp. 119-20.





## CHAPTER II

### THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF HUNGARY

#### HISTORICAL BACKGROUND<sup>1</sup>

Ever since the Middle Ages, Hungarian education has paralleled the cultural and educational developments of Western and Central Europe. Many Hungarian students attended the universities of Paris, Padua, Bologna, Cracow, and Vienna from where they brought back new ideas, many of which were put into practice. However, for centuries, education was dominated by the Catholic Church, and after the Reformation, the Protestant churches also played a leading role. The churches' role in educational matters resulted from the 150 years of Turkish occupation, because, interestingly, the Turks never desired to interfere in the religious affairs of their conquered territories in Hungary, as they did in the Balkans, and therefore, the already established church schools continued to flourish without state interference during their occupation. Elementary education was neglected in this period and consequently the illiteracy rate was relatively high until the 1860's, though lower than that of Italy, Portugal, or Spain. Secondary education was under the direction of the Catholic teaching orders, as well as the Calvinist, Lutheran and Unitarian churches.

It was in 1868, the year after the Compromise with Austria, that

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<sup>1</sup>Ernst C. Helmreich (ed.), Hungary (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1956), pp. 190-211.



the most important step was made toward the expansion of the educational system. Law No. 37, introduced compulsory elementary education and expanded secondary schools. It provided for a six-year elementary school. On its completion a student was to attend a three-year continuation school, where seven hours a week were spent recapitulating the main subjects of the elementary school. However, the provisions of this law were not properly enforced and therefore, compulsory education for the six to fifteen age group remained rather theoretical.

Law No. 37 established three general types of secondary schools:

1. The Gymnasium was an eight-year school of humanities offering preparation for higher education in universities and colleges (including grades 5-12 in North American terms). Later on two types of Gymnasias were developed: one emphasizing classical subjects and the Real gymnasium emphasizing natural sciences and modern languages.
2. The Civic school (Polgari iskola) was a four-year higher elementary school designed to give craftsmen, farmers, et cetera, a better education. To continue studies in the Gymnasium, one had to pass an entrance examination on completing this school.
3. The vocational high school, usually a four-year course, was attended mainly by students from higher elementary schools.

During the period 1922-1931, under the ministership of Kuno Klebersberg, elementary education was greatly improved by enforcing laws on compulsory attendance at elementary schools, as well as by the establishment of a network of rural schools for the farm population, who



found it difficult to send their children to village schools. The next important development was the enactment of Law No. 20 of 1940, which extended compulsory elementary schooling to eight years.

## THE GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SITUATION BEFORE WORLD WAR II

### Primary and Elementary Education

Unless they could be properly cared for at home or elsewhere, parents were obliged to send their children to a kindergarten, which was provided by the state for children from three to six years old. About one-fourth of the children attended kindergartens.<sup>2</sup>

Elementary schools were attended by all children from six to twelve, and those children from twelve to fifteen, who did not pursue studies in a secondary school, attended elementary school two days a week, seven hours a day in the winter, and one four-hour day per week during the summer.

### Secondary Education

There were four kinds of secondary schools. The lower secondary schools offered a four-year course for students ten to fourteen years of age, who were not going to college. The Gymnasia provided the bulk of secondary education, which alone qualified the student for the university. The technical secondary schools offered a four-year course for students from fourteen to eighteen years of age. And training colleges for elementary school teachers offered a four-year course for students

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 192.





from fifteen to eighteen years of age.

### Higher Education

Besides the academies, as for example those of music, fine arts, and dramatic arts, there were six universities in Hungary, which were all supported by the state.

### Adult Education

Local committees were set up for adult education. They received grants in-aid from the Ministry of Education and were under its supervision. Besides providing courses in reading and writing for illiterates, these committees also organized various specialist courses and lectures on topics of general knowledge.

## EDUCATION UNDER THE COMMUNIST REGIME<sup>3</sup>

As the official ideology declares openly, the Communists have used and intend to use education for their own purposes, but it should also be admitted that they have considerably improved educational opportunities for the people as a whole. As soon as they came into power, they nationalized all religious and private schools and, while retaining some of the basic features of the old system, they began reorganizing education throughout the country.

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<sup>3</sup>If not supported by references, observations on aspects of education or physical education in Communist Hungary are based on personal teaching experience or personal contacts in Hungary.



### Primary and Elementary Education

The network of kindergartens was expanded. The number of kindergartens in 1938 was 1,140 and the number of children attending them was 112,100. In 1963 there were 3,136 kindergartens and 184,300 children attended them. This figures represents 41.8 per cent of the total number of children of kindergarten age. At this time the ratio of children to one kindergarten teacher was 18.9.<sup>4</sup> Although no figures are available about the percentage of kindergarten age children in the total population either for 1938 or 1963, the ratio of children under fifteen, which shows a steady decline from 26.0 per cent in 1941 to 24.6 per cent in 1963,<sup>5</sup> indicates indirectly that there could not have been an increase in the number of kindergarten age children between 1938 and 1963. Therefore, there seems to be no reason to doubt the official claim that the kindergarten service has been considerably expanded since 1945. Due to the low wages most of the mothers have to work, since there is a shortage of labour in the country, and the regime, has therefore, been more or less obliged to increase kindergarten services.

In the field of elementary education the government instituted a drastic change in 1945. At that time all types of elementary schools were replaced by the compulsory "general school" offering an eight-year study program. With this innovation the lower half of the curriculum of the Gymnasium has been incorporated into the curriculum of the "general

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<sup>4</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics, Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964), p. 161.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 12.



school," with alterations in content. All foreign language teaching was abolished with the exception of Russian which was now introduced at the grade 5 level. This organization has been maintained up to the present with only minor modifications. Recent changes have been the introduction of two hours per week of practical training, called polytechnical education, for the top four grades, the re-introduction of the English, French and German languages into the curricula,<sup>6</sup> and the organization of a foreign language school where the teaching of a foreign language--besides Russian--is to start in Grade 3, at the age of eight.<sup>7</sup>

In 1961 provisions were made for rural pupils in the upper stage of the general school (grades 5-8) to attend district schools if in their region the number of pupils did not reach twenty per grade (total of eighty). These students are taken to the school by train or bus or students' hostels are established for them. In 1961, 29,386 pupils attended 749 district schools.<sup>8</sup>

As indicated in Table I there has been a steady increase in both the number of teachers and students in the secondary school, unparalleled by a similar increase in population, which has remained steady around ten million. Since the ratio of children under fifteen in the

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<sup>6</sup>Jozsef Bencedy and Vilmos Csoma, "Hungary: Educational Developments in 1961-62," International Yearbook of Education, Volume 24 (International Bureau of Education and UNESCO, 1962), p. 164.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 163.

<sup>8</sup>Jozsef Bencedy and Vilmos Csoma, "Hungary: Educational Developments in 1960-1961," International Yearbook of Education, Volume 23 (International Bureau of Education and UNESCO, 1961), p. 165.





TABLE I  
SOME STATISTICS REGARDING GENERAL SCHOOLS<sup>9</sup>

	1937-38	1949-50	1962-63	1963-64
Number of teachers	26,017	36,041	59,921	61,518
Number of students	1,096,000	1,202,100	1,472,700	1,468,700
Number of students per classroom	--	53.5	47.3	46.6
Number of students per teacher	42.1	34.3	24.6	23.9

<sup>9</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics, Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964), p. 161.

total population decreased from 26.0 per cent in 1938 to 24.6 per cent by 1963<sup>10</sup> and since the number of births per year also decreased from 182,206 in 1938, with only a minor rise in the early 1950's, to 132,262 in 1963,<sup>11</sup> the statistics indicate that the Communist regime has significantly succeeded in extending elementary and what used to be lower secondary (grades 5-8) education. The student-classroom ratio indicates a lack of classrooms, and this problem is solved by double-shift teaching. But the 23.9 teacher-student ratio suggests a relatively low teacher workload.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>12</sup>Practically all the factual information in this study is from official Hungarian sources. And since Communist authorities have a reputation for padding statistical data, their statistics are often suspected by Western observers. But they are the only data available and in order to learn anything at all about Communist countries they must be





## Secondary Education

Since the lower half of the curriculum of the Gymnasium has been incorporated into the program of the general school, the Gymnasium was left with four grades numbered one to four. During the last twenty years various changes have taken place in its curriculum. One of the first major changes was the discontinuation of the classical type curriculum, an emphasis on the natural sciences and the introduction of vocational, specialized training. And, also, the study of all other foreign languages was replaced by that of Russian alone. But since 1962, English, German, French, Spanish and Italian are again included in the curriculum.<sup>13</sup>

As in the general school, practical instruction (polytechnical education), consisting of agricultural and industrial work at this level, has been gradually introduced in about half the secondary schools with a view to including it eventually in all of them. Students go to school five days a week and take part in productive work one day per week.<sup>14</sup> This practice aims to develop in students a favourable attitude toward physical labour. The development of specialized secondary schools or

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relied on and accepted as at least approximately correct. Furthermore, it should be noted that after the Revolution of 1956 the Hungarian Communists have become more communicative and have made public such data which up till then had not been available and some of which can be verified fairly accurately by private persons. In view of these considerations, the official Hungarian statistics will be accepted as generally correct for the purposes of this study.

<sup>13</sup>Bencedy and Csoma, 1962, op. cit., p. 163.

<sup>14</sup>Bencedy and Csoma, 1961, op. cit., p. 167.



Gymnasia has also been emphasized and by 1963 almost half the students enrolled in secondary schools were taking a specialized education. This point is well illustrated in Table II.

TABLE II  
THE NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS ACCORDING TO  
TYPES OF SCHOOLS<sup>15</sup>

Type of School	Number of Students	
	1937-38	1963-64
General Gymnasia	30,593	201,364
Gymnasia of Fine Arts	-	1,406
Vocational Secondary (Technikum) <sup>a</sup>	-	16,024
Industrial Secondary (Technikum)	-	76,969
Agricultural (Technikum)	806	25,742
Commercial (Technikum)	12,164	63,914
Elementary Teacher Training <sup>b</sup>	8,336	-
Kindergarten Teacher Training	450	-
TOTAL	52,349	385,419

<sup>a</sup>The majority of the graduates of the technical secondary schools are given jobs in industry as technicians and some of them may, if they wish and if they are permitted to, continue their studies at a university.

<sup>b</sup>The training of elementary and kindergarten teachers has been transferred to the college level.

<sup>15</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics, Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964), p. 163.

### Higher Education

The Communists closed some of the academies of law and most of the



religious seminaries and academies, but considerably increased the number of higher institutions. To the six universities existing before World War II, they added several and created a large number of senior colleges and junior colleges. According to the latest statistics, there are thirty universities and colleges, thirteen primary school and kindergarten teachers' colleges, forty-three junior technical colleges and three vocational institutions.<sup>16</sup> The total number of instructors and professors at these institutions of higher learning is 6,947, and that of the students 82,280. That the Communists have achieved significant numerical results in higher education can be seen from Table III, which shows figures from both the 1937-38 and 1963-64 school year.

#### Continuation Schools

As the first step towards raising the compulsory school age to sixteen years continuation schools were established in 1959. These are very similar to those that existed before World War II, and they aim to provide continuing education for those students who, on completion of the general school, do not enter either a secondary or a trade school. The continuation schools operate with two-year courses which have either an agricultural or industrial character. In the 1963-64 school year there were 21,543 students in these schools.

#### Vocational Education

Vocational education follows the completion of the eighth grade of the general school and it takes three years to complete. It aims at

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<sup>16</sup> Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 164.





TABLE III

THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PARTICIPATING IN HIGHER EDUCATION BROKEN  
DOWN ACCORDING TO MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY<sup>17</sup>

	1937-38	1963-64
Engineering	1,052	26,322
From these in junior technical colleges	-	7,062
Agricultural	621	8,769
From these in junior agric. colleges	-	3,842
Economic Science	775	5,891
From these in junior commerical colleges	-	1,545
Philosophy	-	6,226
Science	1,576	4,877
Secondary School Teacher Training College	581	10,080
Elementary School Teacher Training College	-	3,876
Kindergarten Teacher Training	-	1,139
Law	4,671	4,716
Medicine	1,451	6,381
Pharmacy	173	911
Fine Arts	322	877
Others	525	2,215
TOTAL	11,747	82,280

<sup>17</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics, Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964).

training students for all the trades needed in the economy. Theoretical and practical instruction are given equal time allotment in the curriculum. The number of students for the 1963-64 school year was 151,154.

#### Adult Education

The number of people taking part in formal adult education is surprisingly high. In the 1963-64 school year there were 116,670 students enrolled in the general school,<sup>18</sup> 194,736 in secondary schools,<sup>19</sup>

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 162.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 163.



and 37,044<sup>20</sup> in higher education. This latter figure represents almost half of all students enrolled in some phase of higher education. Most of these students are enrolled in night classes and some in correspondence courses, but in both type of study they complete the equivalent of a full university year's work each year. The explanation for the large number of people enrolled in adult education lies in government policy. The state encourages adult education partially for propaganda purposes--the common educational slogan being that in a People's Democracy everybody has the right and opportunity for education--and partially because it is a cheap way to gain experts for the economy; those who study still do their regular work. Until recently, such individuals have had special privileges: various leaves of absences for classes and study amounting to as much as two months in a year. Also, many students enroll because, due to severe numerical and academic restrictions, they are refused admission to the regular secondary or university courses and this is the only way for them to get a higher education. And higher education now means a better job in Communist Hungary.

### Youth Organizations

There are two government and Communist controlled youth organizations in Hungary. Students of the general school are expected to join the Pioneer Movement and students of the secondary schools and the universities the KISZ (Association of Communist Youth). All the social activities and a great deal of the sports activities are carried on by

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<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 165.



these two organizations and there is a heavy pressure, both social and political, on the students to join. There has been a steady increase in membership and presently the majority of the students in both the general and secondary schools have become members. By 1962 over 80 per cent of general school students were members of the Pioneer Organization and over 72 per cent of secondary students were members of KISZ.<sup>21</sup>

#### SOME SPECIFIC OBSERVATIONS ON VARIOUS FEATURES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Education is highly centralized and bureaucratized. All decisions come from the Ministry of Education, through the county and local councils down to the schools. Consequently, the solution of the simplest problems often takes considerable time. Since teachers are appointed to their position and since they can only change jobs with ministerial permission, the teacher "turn-over" is almost negligible. While this practice is, in general, good for education, it causes personal hardships for the teachers.

Inspection of teachers is done by both the principal and by subject inspectors. Generally, monthly inspections are the practice by the principal and yearly inspections by the subject inspector. The teachers are obliged to follow a set plan which is prepared for half a year at a time, listing the topics covered in each period. If the teacher satisfies official regulations in his teaching, then he does not have to worry

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<sup>21</sup>Bencedy and Csoma, 1962, op. cit., p. 167.





about public pressure, because parent-teacher associations are organized only to help the school, not to criticize it.

Schools operate six days a week, five or six hours a day, from eight in the morning until one in the afternoon. This means that students spend about thirty to thirty-two hours in school, depending on their grade. They also have to do two to three hours of homework each day. Teachers, on the other hand, have a relatively low work load ranging from eighteen to twenty-four hours per week. The pupil-teacher ratio, as has been pointed out earlier, is around twenty pupils per teacher in both the general and secondary schools. Teachers, however, have often been given the unpleasant job of "convincing" the people about the correctness of certain government policies, as for example, regarding the collectivization of agriculture, by visiting them personally after school hours. Teachers' salaries are about the same as those of most of the workers, but miners and professional engineers earn about twice as much, doctors and those in leading positions, usually party members, about ten times as much.

Although corporal punishment of any kind is not allowed in schools, there is not much problem with discipline, since there is great pressure on the students to do well academically. In this respect the home and school cooperate exceptionally well. It is interesting that although officially the use of corporal punishment is prohibited, the parents themselves often ask the teachers to employ it. For this reason it is still used irregularly.

As was pointed out earlier, schooling up to the university level is free in Hungary. And for both the general and secondary school





students, special classrooms and supervisors are provided after school hours, until their parents return from work. University education is not only free, but most university students actually receive financial support; the percentage of students receiving some amount of financial aid was 95.1 per cent in 1963.<sup>22</sup> The amount of this support varies according to the financial position of the parents and the academic record of the students.

Discrimination in education was widely and officially practiced prior to 1956. Students of bourgeois origin--whose parents had employed and therefore, according to Marxian doctrines, exploited someone--were excluded from secondary and university education. On the other hand, children of Communists were given preference over everyone else. Presently, admission to secondary and higher education depends more on scholarship than on social origin.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 166.

<sup>23</sup>Editorial in The People's Freedom (Budapest), June 14, 1962.



## CHAPTER III

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPORTS TO 1918

#### Historical Background

While there is an abundance of references to sport-like activities in Hungary prior to the beginning of the nineteenth century, it is not within the scope of this study to deal in detail with those activities of that period which could not fully be classified as sports. Suffice to say, that these activities included the occasional running and throwing contests of the serfs and the knightly tournaments of the feudal era, the duel-like contests against Turkish soldiers during the one hundred and fifty years of Turkish occupation of Central Hungary, the target shooting clubs of the burghers and such informal sports activities of the nobility as falconry, hunting, riding, mountain climbing, and fishing.

The introduction of modern sports at the competitive level occurred only at the beginning of the nineteenth century, mostly under English influence. The Hungarian aristocracy was essentially English-oriented in this period. Many Hungarian nobles received their education in England and many nobles made frequent visits there during their lifetime. Of these aristocrats, Count Istvan Szechenyi and Baron Miklos Wesselenyi played the most important role in the popularization of English sports activities in Hungary.

Count Szechenyi, an outstanding philanthropist, author, politician and reformer of his age, and--perhaps--the greatest Hungarian that ever



lived, was engaged in numerous activities. Among other things, Szechenyi was mainly responsible for such highly important projects as the founding of the National Bank and the National Academy of Sciences, the building of the first permanent bridge over the Danube and the flood and navigation control of the Theiss and Danube rivers. Though he was mostly concerned with the economic progress of Hungary, it is a sign of the universality of his concepts that he devoted considerable attention to the development of sports.

Count Szechenyi made his first trip to England in 1815 and from this time on he remained in continuous connection with England until his death. This can be illustrated with his subscription to an English sports journal, The Sporting Magazine, which he maintained for years.<sup>1</sup> What held his imagination in the sporting life of England at first was horse racing, in which he had special interests due to his position as a substantial landowner. In this period the raising of horses was one of the most important agricultural industries in Hungary. In this respect Szechenyi realized the beneficial influence and the financial possibilities which might be derived from horse racing and, therefore, he made concerted efforts to promote it in Hungary. That his efforts in the popularization of horse racing among the nobility proved to be successful, is indicated by the participation of many Hungarian aristocrats in the organization of the first horse races held in Vienna in 1816.<sup>2</sup> In

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<sup>1</sup>Laszlo Siklossy, A Thousand Years of Hungarian Sport, Vol. I-III (Budapest: Az Orszagos Testnevelesi Tanacskiadasa, 1928), II, p. 28.

<sup>2</sup>Miklos Bely, The History of Physical Education, Vol. I-II (Budapest: Tankonyvkiado, 1964), II, p. 88.





Hungary, also, after some local races starting in 1814, important races were held from 1827 on at Pest.

While in England, Szechenyi became interested in other sports as well. Consequently, on his return to Hungary, he attempted to organize a racing club on the Danube and establish a ball-house to play tennis. As will be seen in the discussion of the history of individual sports, neither one of these attempts met with full success.

Baron Wesselenyi, the only descendent of the last prince of Transylvania, was one of the wealthiest aristocrats in Hungary. His wealth made it possible for him to devote his life almost entirely to the cultivation of sports activities. A friend of Szechenyi, he travelled with him to England where he also acquired a taste for horse-racing and was introduced to rowing and boxing and became very interested in swimming. In Hungary he constantly supported Szechenyi's attempts to organize sports clubs on the English pattern. He was, for example, the president of the National Fencing Club of Pest from 1830 to 1834, when he resigned to spare the Club from the political persecution to which he was exposed by the Hapsburg government for his nationalistic views. In his private life he was a promoter of all kinds of contests, the first Hungarian who practiced boxing, a famous long distance swimmer and an outstanding hunter.

Szechenyi and Wesselenyi are the most eminent representatives of the sports-minded Hungarian nobility of the early eighteenth century. In addition to them, there were many other of the same or lesser rank and an increasing number of burghers and intellectuals, who held similar views about sports and who either by donations or by personal participation



contributed to the formation of the first clubs. The development of sport clubs was interrupted by the War of Independence of 1848 against the Hapsburg dynasty and its successive defeat. Because in the years following the loss of the War of Independence all associations were suspected of subversive activities, the Hapsburg government was very reluctant to grant charters to sports clubs. However, after the Compromise of 1867, which swept away the Hapsburg control in Hungary, new sport clubs were formed in quick succession all over the country.

The most significant characteristic of Hungarian sport in the nineteenth century was its nationalistic spirit. The early attempts of the nobility in the first half of the nineteenth century to organize sport clubs were underscored by a tendency expressing national pride through sports, and often sport clubs served as focal points for anti-Hapsburg political association. Before the War of Independence in 1848, the sport clubs were suspected of revolutionary activities and, for this reason, the government maintained a secret supervision of them. Baron Wesselenyi's resignation as president of the National Fencing Club of Pest to save that club from any persecution because of his political views and activities is a good illustration of the Hapsburg government's interference with the sports life of Hungary in that period. The loss of the War of Independence resulted in the dissolution of most sport clubs, and although development started again when the furore of political fever died down, it reached significant proportions only after the Compromise of 1867.

Since the Compromise of 1867 returned to Hungary its full independence, the oppression of sport clubs ceased, and the nationalistic spirit



which hitherto lay dormant could play its part in the development of sports. Sport competitions proved to be one of the most suitable ways to display national achievement and to show the equality or superiority of the Magyars over the Austrians and the other races of the Monarchy. The Hungarians were not unique in this respect, since the Czechs also embarked on a wide-scale program to increase national unity, strength and prestige.<sup>3</sup> The surge in the formation of new clubs and the increase in the number of participants in sports after 1867 was further reinforced by the millenary celebrations of 1896. Among other cultural features of Hungarian life, sports also received a tremendous impetus, and during the millenary year formed an important part of the celebrations held to commemorate the foundation of the Hungarian state in 896.

### Individual Sports

In order to provide a comprehensive and also detailed account of this interesting era in Hungarian sport history, an examination of the history of the major sports is necessary. For this reason, the history of the major sports from the formation of the first clubs in the nineteenth century to the full development of a competitive sports life by the end of the pre-World War I period is presented below.

### Fencing<sup>4</sup>

Fencing as a sport activity was introduced into Hungary in 1825

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<sup>3</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Elmer D. Mitchell and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1956), pp. 332-33.

<sup>4</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 346-80; Ferenc Bohn, The History of Physical Education (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1942), pp. 301-04, Bely, op.





with the formation of the Pest National Fencing Institute. The purpose of the Institute, which was formed under the leadership of Count Keglevich, was not only to train members of the nobility in fencing but also to provide free instruction for those young members of the middle or burgher class who otherwise could not afford to take up fencing. The first instructors of the Institute were German and French, but soon a young Hungarian, named Keresztessy, was given a Master's diploma in fencing. Eventually he became the greatest figure in Hungarian fencing during the nineteenth century. He continued to teach until his death in 1895, and during his long career he taught fencing to members of the fashionable society in Budapest. The style of fencing taught by Keresztessy was a version of the old Italian style of fencing. It was characterized by wrist action as opposed to fencing from the elbow, the modern fencing style. Since by the end of the nineteenth century, the wrist-fencing system proved to be inferior to the elbow-fencing system, it was replaced by it.

Fencing at the time of Keresztessy was a sport, but it was considered only as a fashionable pastime or useful preparation for dueling. No fencing demonstrations or competitions were held until 1893, when a group of Italian fencers put on a fencing display at Budapest. Due to the success of this display, the Hungarian Athletic Club organized the first public fencing competition in 1895 in which Austrian fencers also participated. Another great milestone in the history of Hungarian

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cit., pp. 180-81; Jozsef Veto (ed.), Sports in Hungary (Budapest: Corvina, 1965), pp. 74-82.





fencing was the international fencing competition held in 1896, the millenary year. Here the Hungarian fencers, using the wrist-fencing system, suffered an overwhelming defeat from the Italians. As a result, the sport clubs began to hire Italian fencing masters to teach the Italian method of elbow-fencing, which was so successful at the competitions.

Of these Italian masters, Santinelli, who permanently settled in Hungary, was the most outstanding. The elbow-fencing system which he taught was adopted by the Hungarian masters and fencers to suit their individual style, while they retained the best features of the Hungarian system. By the end of the nineteenth century many new fencing clubs were formed and fencing divisions were created within most sport clubs in both the capital and the provinces.<sup>5</sup> In 1897 the Hungarian Athletic Association established a separate department to control fencing, and by 1914 an independent Hungarian Fencing Association was formed to direct the fencing sport in Hungary.<sup>6</sup>

Parallel with the development of fencing as a sport, competition both at home and abroad increased, and soon Hungarian fencers gained a considerable international reputation. The quality of Hungarian fencing by the early 1900's can be well illustrated with the Hungarian victories in sabre fencing in both the individual and team championship at the 1908 and 1912 Olympic games.

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<sup>5</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 687-89. <sup>6</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 305.



## Rowing<sup>7</sup>

Rowing was one of the first sports to be introduced into Hungary. On his return from England in 1822, Count Szechenyi was the first Hungarian to engage in rowing as a pastime. By 1841 he succeeded in forming the first rowing club in Hungary. The members were mostly aristocrats. The Boating Union of Pest, as the club was called, had fifty-five founding members, and it flourished until 1844, when, due to lack of support, it became defunct. Only in 1861 was the next rowing club founded under the name of the Boating Club of Budapest. From this time on, however, new clubs were formed in quick succession in both the capital and the provinces. As a result of this expansion, from an exclusive sport of aristocrats, rowing became a sport of the growing middle class. Due to the development of clubs and the increase in membership, the Hungarian Rowing Federation was formed in 1893. This was the third sport federation, after the Shooting and Gymnastic Federation, to be created in Hungary. Although Hungarian rowers began to participate quite successfully in international competitions with the neighboring countries in the nineteenth century, their results only became outstanding internationally in the 1930's.

## Gymnastics<sup>8</sup>

A gymnastics club concerned only with the instruction of children

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<sup>7</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 188-291, III, pp. 376-457; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 306-10; Bely, op. cit., p. 169; Veto, op. cit., pp. 123-24.

<sup>8</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 494-525, III, pp. 80-139; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 311-24; Bely, op. cit., pp. 128-45; Veto, op. cit., pp. 115-17.



introduced gymnastics into Hungary. Under the direction of Ignac Clair, a veteran of Napoleon's army, this club functioned at Pest from 1839 until Clair's death in 1866. During its existence, by popularizing gymnastics, the club considerably contributed to the introduction of physical education into the school curricula.

By the 1860's a great interest developed in gymnastics among the adult population in Pest. The newly-formed Gymnastics Club of Pest began to hold regular practices in 1863, even though for political reasons its constitution was not officially approved by the representatives of the Hapsburg government until 1965. Dr. Bakody, a physician and professor of medicine, played an important part not only in the formation of the Gymnastics Club of Pest but in its further development and in the promotion of gymnastics as a sport. It is interesting to note that he was one of many Hungarian medical men who were involved in sports both as participants and organizers and administrators.

In 1869, another club, the Gymnastics Club of Buda, was formed. The conduct of the members was governed by a remarkably severe set of rules. Members missing three club sessions without a medical or official reasons were demoted automatically among the supporting members of the club and were not allowed to participate in club activities for some time. Apparently this system worked very well, since in a short time the Gymnastics Club of Buda became the largest and best sport club in Hungary.

In the 1880's a rapid development occurred in gymnastics, and by 1889 there were ninety-five clubs formed in Hungary. Even though of this







number only sixty actually functioned in that year, the number of practicing clubs was quite impressive.<sup>9</sup> In no other sport, except shooting, were there so many clubs in existence at that time. It is for this reason that the second sport federation in Hungary was the Gymnastics Federation, founded in 1885.<sup>10</sup> Until the formation of other sport federations ten years later, it alone represented all the sports with the exception of shooting, which had its federation since 1875, and united all the sport clubs in Hungary.

The program of gymnastics club practices and competitions was based at this time mostly on Swiss gymnastics. Later on the medically-orientated Swedish gymnastics became prevalent, and finally German gymnastics, with its emphasis on apparatus work, was adopted. As a result of German influence, the program of gymnastics competitions up to the early 1900's included regularly such track and field events as the high jump, broad jump and discus throw and, on occasion, even wrestling and weight-lifting.<sup>10</sup> Though gymnastics never became a popular sport and though it did not achieve great international successes in this period, it continued to be an important factor in the sport life of the country until World War I.

#### Athletics (Track and Field)<sup>11</sup>

The introduction of athletics into Hungary was chiefly the work of

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<sup>9</sup> Hungarian Gymnastics Federation (MOTESZ) Yearbook for 1889 (Budapest: Athenaeum, 1889), p. 12.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., p. 48.

<sup>11</sup> Siklossy II, op. cit., p. 653; III, pp. 23-80; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 324-35; Bely, op. cit., pp. 145-68; Ferenc Zuber, The History of the Hungarian Track and Field Club (Budapest: Bichler, 1925), Veto, op. cit., pp. 21-41.



another Hungarian aristocrat, Count Miksa Eszterhazy. During the years he spent at Oxford and Cambridge as a student and later on when he served in the diplomatic corps at London and Washington, he became familiar with athletics, which was an almost exclusively Anglo-Saxon sport around the middle of the nineteenth century. As a result of his efforts as a writer and an organizer, the Hungarian Athletic Club, the first track and field club on the continent, was formed in 1875 with over two hundred and fifty members.<sup>12</sup> On May 2, 1875, the Club held its first competition, at which the events included the 100-yard dash, the 120-yard hurdles, shot put, long jump, high jump, a two-mile race and boxing. This was the first track and field competition held on the continent.<sup>13</sup> The second important athletic club was formed in 1885 at Kolozsvar, Transylvania (Cluj, Romania, today).

By 1897 there were enough athletic clubs in Hungary to warrant the formation of the Hungarian Athletic Federation (Magyar Atletikai Szovetseg, MASZ). The first national championship organized by the Federation was held in 1903 in eight events.<sup>14</sup> In 1913, at Berlin, the MASZ played an important part in the formation of the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF). One of the MASZ representatives, Szilard Sztankovits, was elected to the five-member council of the IAAF.

It is of interest to mention that during the early period of the athletic competitions, many events were governed by peculiar rules originating from the gymnastics background from which track and field developed in Hungary. Thus, as examples, both the shot put and the long

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<sup>12</sup>Zuber, op. cit., p. 7.      <sup>13</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 150.

<sup>14</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 332.



jump were performed from a wooden platform, used commonly in gymnastics for take-offs in vaulting. In the shot put and the discus besides the distance, the height of the throw was also measured with specially designed standards. Even more interesting was the practice of resolving a tie in the pole vault by judging the techniques of the contestants. With the beginning of international competition in the middle of the 1890's, these practices were replaced by international rules.

Hungarian track and field athletics soon achieved a considerable international reputation in Europe. At the Paris Olympic Games in 1900, Rezso Baurer won a gold medal in the men's discus, and Hungarians finished second to the British athletes in the unofficial rankings of European nations. In the following years, participation in both international and home competitions increased, and this was paralleled by a growth in the number of clubs and club members. By the end of 1913, the number of clubs affiliated to the MASZ had risen from the initial foundation members to 107, with over 4,000 registered athletes. And whereas in 1907 only twenty-nine competitions were held, in 1913, 127 were organized.<sup>15</sup> Just prior to the outbreak of World War I, Hungarian athletes were on the way to becoming the best in Europe. In July of 1914, the Hungarian team lost a dual meet to the Swedes, who were then considered the strongest team in Europe, by a margin of only one point. It is interesting to note that if the modern system of awarding points was in use at the time, Hungary would have won the meet by 77.5 to 66.5 points. The outbreak of World War I, however, not only prevented

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<sup>15</sup> Veto, op. cit., p. 24.





further development, but marked the beginning of a rapid decline in Hungarian track and field.

### Swimming<sup>16</sup>

The history of competitive-type swimming in Hungary dates back to the early 1800's. In 1935, twenty-five years after Lord Byron swam across the Dardanelles and began the history of swimming in the sense that his time was the very first to be recorded, Baron Wesselenyi swam for three hours in Hungary's largest lake, Lake Balaton.<sup>17</sup> Forty years later, Kalman Szekrenyessi, a captain of the Lancers who travelled widely, began a notable swimming career.<sup>18</sup> Some of his feats were swimming across the Bosphorus from Europe to Asia and across the Suez Canal from Asia to Africa. In 1880 he was the first man to swim from one side of Lake Balaton to the other, a distance of about ten miles.

The achievements of Szekrenyessi and those of other enthusiastic sportsmen created a growing interest in swimming, and soon swimming competitions were held at fairly regular intervals. The first of these competitions was organized in 1881 on the Danube River, between Vac and Budapest.<sup>19</sup> The holding of the first national championship followed next year, also on the Danube.<sup>20</sup>

For several years all swimming competitions were held in rivers

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<sup>16</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 492-526; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 336-40; Bely, op. cit., pp. 173-77; Veto, op. cit., pp. 60-63.

<sup>17</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., p. 342,      <sup>18</sup>Ibid., pp. 496-504.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 505.      <sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 509.





and lakes. However, indoor swimming also gained in popularity. This is indicated by the holding of the first indoor competitions in the Lukacs Baths at Budapest in 1890.<sup>21</sup>

Until the 1890's no single club was concerned solely with swimming. Interestingly, gymnastics, track and field and other sport clubs promoted swimming in separate subdivisions within the club. The Hungarian Swimming Club (Magyar Uszo Egyesulet, MUE), the first of its kind was founded in 1893. In subsequent years other swimming clubs were formed, and many of the big sport clubs established swimming subdivisions. In 1907 the Hungarian Swimming Federation (Magyar Uszok Szovetsege, MUSZ) was formed to coordinate swimming activities in the country.<sup>22</sup> Hungarians also played an important role in the formation of the International Swimming Federation which was formed in 1908 at the London Olympic Games. Alfred Brull, a Hungarian swimming official, was elected vice-chairman of the Federation.

In view of the early development of swimming in Hungary, it is not surprising that in 1896, at the first Olympic Games at Athens, Alfred Hajos won both the 100 meter and 1,200 meter races, thereby taking two of the four Olympic titles in swimming. Hungarian successes in swimming continued in subsequent years at the Olympics, with a silver and bronze medal won in Paris in 1900 and with Zoltan Halmai scoring a double victory in the 50-yard and 100-yard races at the 1904 Olympic Games at St. Louis. At these Olympics, Geza Kiss also won a silver and a bronze medal in long distance running. Due to these spectacular results,

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<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 514.

<sup>22</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 338.



swimming became the most popular sport in Hungary until the Stockholm Olympics in 1912, which was dominated by American swimmers.

It was also in this period that water polo, in which sport Hungary was to achieve world hegemony in later years, was introduced into the country from Britain. By the early 1900's water polo championships were held annually, and the sport became very popular by the beginning of World War I.

### Skating<sup>23</sup>

The first skating club in Hungary was the Budapest Skating Club (Budapest Korcsolyazo Egylet, BKE), which was formed in 1869. This club played a major role in the development of skating. Soon after its formation it began to organize both speed and figure skating competitions. It became a very active club whose membership by 1878 had reached two thousand.

The Budapest Skating Club was one of the founding members of the International Skating Federation formed in 1892. Tibor Foldvary, an active competitor of the club, was asked to prepare a draft for the constitution of the Federation and to draw up the rules which would govern the championships organized by the Federation. His proposals were accepted with minor changes by the Federation in 1892, and although they have been modified since then, the basic system and the concepts prepared by Foldvary are still in force.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>23</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 531-69; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 340-42; Bely, op. cit., pp. 177-78; Veto, op. cit., pp. 126-27.

<sup>24</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 178.



For its contribution to international skating and as a tribute to the successes of its skaters, the BKE was awarded the honor of organizing the European skating championships in 1895. There was no skating federation in Hungary at this time. It was formed on the initiative of the BKE with only eleven member clubs, in 1908.

Due mainly to the activities of the BKE, skating became very popular, not as a competitive sport, but rather as a recreational activity, by the 1880's. In 1888 there were sixteen skating rinks in Budapest, and it was estimated that about four thousand people skated regularly in the capital.<sup>25</sup> But skating also spread into the provinces and the records show that by the 1890's there were over one hundred skating clubs in the country.<sup>26</sup>

Hungarian figure skaters gained international successes by the late 1800's. The best skater at this time was Tibor Foldvary, a member of the BKE, who won the European Figure Skating Championship in 1895.<sup>27</sup> Hungarian figure skating continued to be of high international calibre until the outbreak of World War I, with the Hungarian skaters taking high honors at the European and world championships. Of these skaters, Lili Kronenberg and Opika Meray-Horvath were the most outstanding. Between 1908 and 1914 the two of them won every figure skating world championship for women.<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>25</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 548.    <sup>26</sup>Ibid., pp. 555-57.

<sup>27</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 342.    <sup>28</sup>Loc. cit.





### Alpinism and Tourism<sup>29</sup>

These two related sports were practiced within the same clubs in Hungary from the sixteenth century on. Records show that by the sixteenth century hiking tours were organized for high school students in the Tatra mountains, now part of Czechoslovakia.<sup>30</sup> The first mountaineer who climbed and explored the highest peaks in the Tatras in the early 1600's was David Frolich, the headmaster of Kesmark College. Count Istvan Szechenyi, the famous Hungarian politician, reformer, and sportsman, also liked mountain climbing and was actively engaged in it both at home and abroad in the early 1800's.

The first Hungarian alpinist was Dr. Emil Zsigmondi. He was the first mountaineer in the world to climb Corda da Lago in the Italian Alps in 1884. He lost his life the following year while attempting to climb Pic de la Mere.<sup>31</sup>

The first club for climbing and tourism in Hungary, the Hungarian Carpathians Club (Magyarorszagi Karpát Egyesület, MKE), was formed in 1873. Within ten years its active membership rose from 345 to 2,652.<sup>32</sup> The Club organized its activities through six subdivisions based on geographical locations, and therefore, it practically encompassed the whole country. It not only promoted mountain climbing and tourism, but also

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<sup>29</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 640-53; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 342-45; Bely, op. cit.; Veto, op. cit., pp. 129-30.

<sup>30</sup>Siklossy, I, op. cit., p. 334.

<sup>31</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 643.

<sup>32</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., p. 160.



built paths, erected shelters and explored new areas.

In 1890 another big club, the Transylvanian Carpathian Club (Erdelyi Karpat Egyesulet, EKE), and in 1891 the Hungarian Tourist Club (Magyar Tourista Egylet, MTE), were formed. From this time on the popularity of tourism increased, and when the Hungarian Tourist Federation was founded in 1913, there were 11,662 registered club members in the country.<sup>33</sup>

### Boxing<sup>34</sup>

As previously mentioned, the first Hungarian to engage in boxing was Baron Wesselenyi, the famous sportsman of the early 1800's.<sup>35</sup> However, his participation in boxing, both in London and later on in Budapest, remained an isolated incident. It was only when Count Miksa Esterhazy, the founder of the Hungarian Athletics Club (MAC), included boxing among the events of athletic competitions that boxing began to be practiced in Hungary.<sup>36</sup> Until the middle of the 1890's the MAC regularly included boxing in its program, and consequently boxing flourished. Interestingly, besides gymnastics and fencing, boxing was the first sport in which specially trained coaches, or masters as they were called, provided instruction.

From the middle of the 1890's boxing declined, since no competitions were organized in the sport. In 1910 several sport clubs began to include it in their program, and some hired American and Danish coaches.

<sup>33</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 334.

<sup>34</sup>Siklossy II, op. cit., pp. 392-401; III, pp. 320-29; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 345-47; Bely, op. cit., pp. 170-72; Veto, op. cit., pp. 94-100.

<sup>35</sup>Siklossy II, op. cit., pp. 395-97. <sup>36</sup>Ibid., III, p. 322.



The remaining years before the war saw renewed activity in boxing, with the first international contest and the first national championship held in this period.

### Cycling<sup>37</sup>

Although there were only ten bicycle owners in Budapest in 1882, this year they united to form the Budapest Cycle Club (Budapest Kerekpar Egyesulet, BKE), the first cycle club in the country. The next year the club organized its first competition, which was also the first one in Hungary. In the next decade cycling became the most popular sport. The number of clubs grew rapidly, and the national federation was founded in 1894. The highest period in the development of the bicycle sport in the pre-war period were the years 1898-99, when 116 clubs operated in Hungary. In the light of the later decline, it is quite remarkable that many provincial towns built their own cycle tracks.

At the turn of the century an unduly high tax was placed on bicycles, and this radically reduced the number of clubs. In 1907 a revival, lasting until the outbreak of the war, occurred in the sport of bicycling, with increased home and international competition.

### Soccer<sup>38</sup>

Soccer, although in a primitive form, first appeared in the physical education program of some secondary schools in Budapest during the

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<sup>37</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 626-32; III, pp. 476-621; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 347-49; Bely, op. cit., pp. 169-70; Veto, op. cit., pp. 113-15.

<sup>38</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 366-76; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 349-54; Bely, op. cit., pp. 184-87; Veto, op. cit., pp. 44-47.





1880's.<sup>39</sup> Adults, however, were introduced to it only in the late 1890's. The first public soccer game was played in 1897 between members of the Budapest Physical Exercise Club (Budapest Testgyakorlok Kore, BTK) and was witnessed by about one hundred people. Later in the same year, the first international match was played between the BTK and the Vienna Cricket and Football Club, which had nine English players. The game, not surprisingly won by the Vienna club 2:0, was watched by 1,400 spectators.

After these beginnings, soccer developed quickly, with new clubs forming in rapid succession. This development can be best illustrated by the fact that within three years after its introduction, between 1897 and 1900, ninety-two soccer games were played in Hungary.<sup>40</sup> In 1901 the first game between Austria and Hungary, reputed to be the first international game in the world between nations, was played in Budapest.<sup>41</sup> As a result of this development, the Hungarian Soccer Federation (Magyar Labdarugo Szovetseg, MLSZ) was formed in 1901, with thirteen founding clubs. The same year it organized a soccer league in Budapest with a first and second class division. In 1903, to promote soccer for the younger generation, the Soccer Federation of Youth was founded.

With the addition of lower divisions to the soccer league in Budapest and the organization of district leagues in the provinces, by

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<sup>39</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 185.

<sup>40</sup>Janos Foldessy, Sixty Years of Hungarian Soccer (Budapest: Sport Lap es Konyvkiado, 1958), p. 10.

<sup>41</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 45.



1907 Hungarian soccer was placed on a popular basis. By the outbreak of the war both the national team and the club teams had gained a considerable international reputation.

### Wrestling<sup>42</sup>

As in most other countries, some form of wrestling had long been practiced informally by the people in Hungary. There were two interesting features of this type of wrestling. First, the wrestler did not use a wide variety of grips but strove to clasp the waist of his opponent with his arms and then lift him off the mat. Second, when the opponent was lifted off the mat, it was the purpose to throw the opponent onto the mat with either his back or one of his feet and shoulders touching it. Consequently, the wrestling match ended as soon as one of the contenders was forced onto the mat. Since no actual combat took place on the mat, this type of wrestling was not very spectacular.

Wrestling in the form of a sport first appeared on the display programs of gymnastics clubs in the 1880's. In these displays brief wrestling contests were held between members of the gymnastics club to make the display more interesting. However, the Hungarian style of wrestling, which prohibited the spectacular mat combat, lost the interest of the public, and the French and Swiss style of wrestling, resembling the modern free-style, were introduced.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>42</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 329-37; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 354-56; Bely, op. cit., p. 173; Veto, op. cit., pp. 131-33.

<sup>43</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 334.



These displays developed a considerable interest in wrestling, and in 1893 the Hungarian Athletic Club created its wrestling subdivision. The first club, concerned solely with the promotion of wrestling, was formed in 1890. The first large-scale national wrestling championship was held in 1905 under the leadership of the Hungarian Athletics Federation, which controlled wrestling until the formation of the wrestling federation in 1921.

Wrestling became popular within a short time, and international successes followed remarkably soon. In the 1908 Olympics, for example, Richard Weiss won a gold medal in the heavyweight division. From this time on, Hungarian wrestling continued to be of high international calibre until the present.

#### Skiing<sup>44</sup>

Although skiing was introduced into Hungary relatively late, it is not possible to determine with accuracy who brought the first skis into Hungary. It is certain, however, that Istvan Chernel, an ornithologist doing scientific studies in Norway, brought back with him a pair of skis in 1891, which he then began to use in his home town near the Austrian border.

Skiing as a sport activity was first practiced in Hungary by members of the Gymnastic Club of Budapest who formed a cross-country skiing team in 1892. The first cross-country race was held in 1896 at

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<sup>44</sup>Ibid., pp. 569-74; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 356-58; Bely, op. cit., pp. 178-79; Veto, op. cit., pp. 127-28.





a distance of about seventy miles between the cities of Szabadka and Ujvidek which are now the Yugoslavian towns of Subotica and Novisad, respectively. The first independent skiing club formed in 1909 under the name of the Hungarian Skiing Club (Magyar Si Klub). The club put forward a great effort in promoting skiing, and in 1911 it organized both the first national and the first international ski competition ever held in Hungary. By 1913 the sport of skiing was strong enough to warrant the formation of the National Ski Federation, which was founded with a membership of fourteen clubs.

Hungarian skiers have never reached international standards. The lack of success in this sport before World War I could, perhaps, be attributed to the late introduction of skiing into the country. After World War I, the loss of most of the suitable skiing areas and the short winters considerably impeded its development.

### Shooting<sup>45</sup>

The earliest shooting clubs in Hungary were formed in the fourteenth century within the authority of royal towns. Their dual purpose was to enliven the social life of the town and to help to prepare the citizens for the defense of their town. These town shooting clubs, operating under the direction of the tradesmen and the merchants of the towns, continued to exist in the following centuries until the defeat of the Hungarian War of Independence, when they were prohibited for political

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<sup>45</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 698-711; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 358-59; Bely, op. cit., pp. 168-69; Veto, op. cit., pp. 124-25.



reasons by the Hapsburg government.

After the resurgence of activities in the shooting clubs during the last years of the 1860's, the direction of the clubs was taken over by well-to-do businessmen and aristocrats. Leading officials and honorary dignitaries were chosen from the highest circles. In the Shooting Club of Budapest, for example, several members of the royal family were elected into the presidency. Consequently, the shooting clubs became the center of the fashionable social life of the towns.

As a result of their social importance, the number of shooting clubs increased, and by 1874 there were seventy-six clubs in the country.<sup>46</sup> It is estimated that in the 1890's there were approximately 120 shooting clubs in operation. The fact that the Hungarian Shooting Federation (Magyar Lovasz Szovetseg), formed in 1870, was the first sport federation in Hungary, illustrates the importance of shooting in this period.<sup>47</sup>

Despite the large number of clubs and the social importance attached to them, shooting as a sport, involving competition, only began to develop in the 1900's. This development was mainly due to Miklos Szemere, a millionaire of nationalistic views who, at his own expense, built a shooting range and sent abroad outstanding marksmen to gain experience. Undoubtedly, his motivation was political, in that he hoped that the development of target shooting would significantly contribute to the military preparedness of the nation.

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<sup>46</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 707.      <sup>47</sup>Ibid., p. 706.



By the 1910's outstanding international successes were achieved by Hungarian target shooters, and this can be well illustrated with Sandor Prokopp's Olympic victory in the 300-meter rifle shooting contest at Stockholm.

#### Yachting<sup>48</sup>

Yachting is another sport which, mostly due to its expensive nature, was introduced into Hungary by sports-minded aristocrats. The first of these was Count Istvan Szechenyi, who brought the first sailing yacht to Hungary in the early part of the nineteenth century. Soon others followed his example, and yachting became popular among the aristocrats on Lake Balaton.

It is interesting to note that some Hungarians were achieving great international successes at this time in England. Count Odon Batthyany won two competitions organized on the Thames estuary and a cross-channel race, taking two of the three awards offered by Queen Victoria.<sup>49</sup> He became so popular that he was elected commodore of the Royal Yacht Club.

The formation of the first yachting club, the Balaton Yachting Club, in 1866, was followed by the formation of the Balaton Sailing Club in 1882. By the end of the 1890's a vigorous, if exclusive, sailing life developed on Lake Balaton. Although regular competitions continued until the end of the period, Hungarian yachting never reached international standards either before 1920 or to the present. The major reason

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<sup>48</sup>Ibid., pp. 308-15; III, pp. 479-89; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 359-60; Veto, op. cit., p. 133.

<sup>49</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., p. 310.





for this absence of success is probably the lack of opportunity for sailing on the ocean.

### Field Hockey<sup>50</sup>

Field hockey appeared in Hungary quite late. The members of the Hungarian Athletic Club tried it first in 1908. Then the Hungarian Lawyer's Sports Club began to promote it actively. In 1912 they arranged for the first international hockey game ever held in Hungary against the Vienna Cricket and Football Club. The Hungarian Hockey Club, which was concerned solely with field hockey, was formed in 1918. After these initial developments progress came to a halt, and even to the present, field hockey continues to be one of the least popular sports in Hungary.

### Tennis<sup>51</sup>

Although Count Istvan Szechenyi had himself played tennis and had also promoted it in Hungary around 1840, the game began to be played in Hungary on a wider scale only in the 1880's. As with many other sports tennis was also introduced by the sports-minded members of the nobility who became acquainted with the sport in England. The first national championship, held in 1894, was won by a woman, Countess Palffy, who defeated all the male entries in the championship. From then on championships were held annually; and by 1907 the tennis federation was also

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<sup>50</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 360; Veto, op. cit., p. 118.

<sup>51</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., pp. 353-66; Bohn, op. cit., pp. 360-61; Bely, op. cit., p. 183; Veto, op. cit., p. 128.



formed. Despite increased activity in the clubs, however, tennis continued to remain an exclusive sport practiced mostly by the upper classes. Mostly due to the exclusive nature of the sport, which prevented mass participation, international successes were few and far between in this period.

### Women in Sports

A description of the sports life in Hungary prior to 1920 would not be complete without a reference to women's sports.<sup>52</sup> Women first began to participate in sports in the 1880's. The first swimming competition on record was held on the Theiss River at a distance of 3300 meters, in 1881, with five women contestants.

By the 1890's women's swimming contests were held quite frequently, with large numbers of participants. Besides swimming, fencing, tennis and skating became popular among the women. There are also records indicating that women in this period occasionally took part in such other sports as riding, shooting, rowing and cycling. On the whole, however, women's participation in sports was of a haphazard nature and, at best, was restricted to members of the upper social classes.

In summary, one may conclude that from the sporadic sport activities of the second half of the nineteenth century a flourishing sports life developed in Hungary by the early 1900's. This development can be well illustrated with statistics. While in 1886 there were 2,588 active sportsmen in Hungary,<sup>53</sup> by 1908 this number had increased to approximately

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<sup>52</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 713-33. <sup>53</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 144.



20,000.<sup>54</sup> In 1909 competitions were held in 317 events in Hungary and, in the same year, 353 athletes from sixty-four sports clubs participated in national and international competition.

#### Hungary at the Olympic Games

On the assumption that performance at the Olympic Games is a good indication of the quality of sport in a country, a short survey of Hungary's achievements at the Olympic Games is given here.

Athens--1896. In 1896 Hungary was one of twelve nations participating in the first modern Olympic Games at Athens. With two gold, two silver and one bronze medal, she came sixth in the unofficial rankings. The remarkable feature of this Olympics was Alfred Hajos' double victory in winning at 100 and 1,200 meters.

Paris--1900. At the Olympic Games of 1900 in Paris, Rudolf Bauer unexpectedly took the gold medal in discus over the favorite Americans. There were also three silver and two bronze medals won by the Hungarian athletes, and three of these were in swimming.

St. Louis--1904. In 1904 at St. Louis only eight overseas countries participated in the Olympics. Of these, only France, Great Britain, Germany and Hungary came from Europe.<sup>55</sup> This Olympics was dominated by Americans in most events, except in swimming, where Zoltan

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<sup>54</sup>Laszlo Balogh, "Hungarian Sport Prior to World War I," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1925), pp. 110-136.

<sup>55</sup>Ferenc Mezo, Modern Olympic Games (Budapest: Pannonia, 1956), p. 22.





Halmai won gold medals in both the 50-yard and 100-yard free-style events. There were two more medals, a silver and a bronze, won by Geza Kiss in two long distance swimming events.

London--1908. At the London Olympic Games of 1908 Hungarian sabre fencers achieved their first international success, by taking both the individual and team championships. They were to retain the individual title right up to the present, losing the team championship only in 1924 and 1964. At the London Olympic Games, by taking a total of three titles, four silver medals, and a bronze, Hungary was ranked as the sixth nation with only Britain, the United States, Sweden, France and Germany ahead of her.

Stockholm--1912. In 1912 at Stockholm, Hungarian fencers achieved great successes by taking the first four places. At this Olympics there were a total of three titles, two silver medals, and three third places taken.

#### Central Sport Governing Bodies Prior to 1920

The development towards a central sports governing body in Hungary was characterized by a struggle for control of all sports between the Hungarian Gymnastics Federation (MOTESZ) and the Hungarian Athletic Federation (MASZ). MOTESZ, the older of the two federations, based its claim to authority over all sports on the argument that gymnastics encompasses all other sport activities. For quite some time MOTESZ successfully supported its argument with the practice of including track and field events, wrestling, boxing, and weight-lifting in the program of



the Gymnastics Federation.

MASZ claimed, on the other hand, that it is from track and field that all other sports originate, since they all make use of running and jumping movements which are the chief characteristics of the sport. Similarly to MOTESZ, MASZ included a wide variety of sports, even gymnastics, in its competitions.

The struggle between these two federations came to an end by the latter part of the century with the emergence of independent federations for the sports hitherto controlled by either one of the two rivals. The establishment of a central sport governing body was to come much later and under state auspices.

Though the development of sport clubs began on a large scale in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the state did not become involved in sport organization and administration until much later. The first connection between sport and the state was through the Ministry of Religion and Education. In the early 1900's it was a regular practice that grants were given by the Department of High School Education for the support of various sport clubs from the funds allotted for physical education. In 1904, for example, almost half of the total budget for physical education was distributed among the leading sport clubs.<sup>56</sup> The granting of this financial aid did not, however, imply any administrative link between the clubs and the Ministry of Religion and Education.

Slowly, however, a consensus emerged among physical educators and sport leaders about the need for a central advisory or governing body to

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<sup>56</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 222.



coordinate both the formal physical education and the sports program in the country. The first formal propositions suggesting the creation of a national physical education council was made to Parliament in 1908 by the Hungarian National Association of Sports Clubs.<sup>57</sup> In the next year the Hungarian National Gymnastics Federation called together the First National Physical Education Congress at Budapest, and the executive committee of the Congress drafted proposed legislation for the establishment of the National Physical Education Council and the National Physical Education Fund.<sup>58</sup>

It was probably due to the ingenious idea of a physical educator, Dr. Gerenday, who suggested a way which would permit the creation of a physical education fund without any burden to the state treasury, that the proposed legislation about the National Physical Education Fund was made law on June 21, 1913.<sup>59</sup> According to this law the National Physical Education Fund would be provided from a taxation of horse racing bets. Two per cent of the total volume of bets was to be retained for this purpose. It is rather interesting that for the next quarter century, the financial base of Hungarian physical education and sport depended on the eagerness of the public to bet on such races.

In the same year, soon after the creation of the National Physical Education Fund, the National Physical Education Council was also

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<sup>57</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 367.

<sup>58</sup>"Schools and Colleges, Hercules (Budapest, 1910), p. 101.

<sup>59</sup>Ferenc Kemeny, "National Physical Education Council," Orszagos Kozepiskolai Tanaregysuleti Kozlony, 3:166, 1913-14.





established.<sup>60</sup> The council originally was made up of thirty members appointed for a three-year term, but in 1914 an additional ten members were added. The Council members worked in two main divisions. One group was concerned solely with school physical education and the other with physical education outside the school, or, in other words, sports outside the school. The Council was mainly an advisory body to the Minister of Religion and Education in matters of policy. In this capacity it presented twenty-six recommendations for reform to the Minister during the 1913-1916 period. It was the Council's responsibility also to handle the National Physical Education Fund. As a trustee of the Fund, the Council awarded grants for physical education purposes and initiated the building of permanent sport facilities, especially in the provinces. Just how significant this building program was can be well illustrated by the fact that annually three-quarters of the National Physical Education Fund was employed to support it.<sup>61</sup>

During World War I the work of the Council was seriously hampered, and in April 1919 the new Communist regime formally abolished it. The Hungarian Council (Soviet) Republic, as this new regime was called, set up the Directory of Physical Education Affairs to deal strictly with sports. School physical education remained with the Ministry of Education. The Directory of Physical Education Affairs made concerted

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<sup>60</sup> Ferenc Zuber, "The Formation and Functions of the National Physical Education Council, 1913-1925," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1925), pp. 52-76.

<sup>61</sup> Ibid., p. 51.



efforts in revitalizing sports in war-stricken Hungary, and it also developed ambitious plans for future development. However, the troubled four and one-half months during which the Communist regime was in control were not long enough for achieving permanent results.<sup>62</sup>

## DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION UP TO 1918

### Philosophy of Education Prior to 1918

The philosophy of education of this period can best be examined as it is reflected in the historical development of the educational and political organization of the country. Since, up to the end of the eighteenth century, education was exclusively controlled by the Catholic and Protestant churches, respectively, the philosophy of education was basically religious. There was, however, no formulated body of educational philosophy, only the all-pervasive influence of Christian morality. Besides moral up-bringing, during these centuries, educational authorities were concerned with intellectual development to the almost total exclusion of bodily health.

With the development of national consciousness and the demand for more political freedom from Hapsburg control, nationalistic ideas appear in connection with education. In the first part of the nineteenth century, Count Istvan Szechenyi repeatedly expressed his views on education. He believed that a sense of obligation toward the homeland should be instilled in early youth, and he maintained that it is the role of

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<sup>62</sup> Laszlo Kun, The Foundations of Sport History (Budapest: Tankönyvkiado, 1965), pp. 208-10.



education to prepare the younger generation both mentally and physically for the service of their country.<sup>63</sup> After the Compromise of 1867, Szechenyi's ideas formed the basis of Hungarian educational philosophy.

By the end of the pre-World War I period, Hungarian educators formulated explicit educational philosophies. Erno Finaczy (1860-1934), for example, defined the aim of education as the achievement of moral perfection for both the individual and the community.<sup>64</sup> According to him, this moral perfection could be attained through the interplay of three moral qualities: self-discipline, sense of justice and love. While supporting the idea of the full physical, mental and moral growth of the individual, another eminent educator, Sandor Imre (1877-?), conceived of the aim of education as the development of a citizen possessing a high degree of social responsibility.<sup>65</sup> He stated, furthermore, that since education must ensure the future of the community, it should foster the formation of individuals who identify their interests with those of the community. He did, however, warn against one-sidedness which might occur if one area of education, citizenship or aesthetic education, received undue emphasis.

Although by no means authoritarian, with an emphasis on the priority of the community over the individual, these educational concepts

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<sup>63</sup>Bohn, op.cit. p. 287.

<sup>64</sup>Erno Finaczy, Theoretical Pedagogy (Budapest: Athenaeum, 1937), p. 39.

<sup>65</sup>Sandor Imre, Theory of Education (Budapest: Athenaeum, 1928).





might have contributed to the establishment of authoritarianism in education which occurred in subsequent periods. Finally, it should be pointed out that education philosophy in the pre-World War I era evolved spontaneously at the universities and was not prescribed from above. This became the case later.

### Philosophy of Physical Education Prior to 1918

Just as it was difficult to present the philosophy of education for the pre-World War I period, it is problematic to describe the philosophy of physical education in Hungary prior to World War I. Due to the length of the period covered and to the fact that physical education was still in the initial stages of growth, no formulated body of physical education philosophy emerged in this era. Instead, an examination of physical education literature from the earliest times to the end of the period reveals the appearance, then the prevalence, of certain concepts about the role of physical education in society which eventually led to the foundation of a definite philosophy of physical education by the 1920's.

In the seventeenth century, prior to the introduction of some form of physical education into the schools, the main question regarding physical education was whether or not it should be included in the school curricula. The first supporting opinion was expressed by Comenius, the noted Bohemian educator then teaching in Hungary, who claimed that the full intellectual development of the students could only be achieved parallel with the promotion of their physical health.<sup>66</sup> For this reason,

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<sup>66</sup>Siklossy, I, op. cit., p. 172.



he advocated--as will be discussed later--the inclusion of an extensive program of physical activities in the school curricula.

Later authors dealing with physical education expressed similar views about the role of physical education in ensuring physical health.<sup>67</sup> Then, in the Ratio Educationis of 1777, which contained a progressive but abortive program of physical education for Hungarian schools, the significance of physical education from the state's point of view in terms of healthy citizens was also expressed.<sup>68</sup> Count Szechenyi, in the early 1800's, further developed this idea when he stated that the nation needs confident and physically robust citizens to achieve its independence.<sup>69</sup>

After 1868, when physical education was made compulsory in the schools, a serious concern with physical strength and health in terms of the benefits to the individual appears in the physical education literature. This concern with physical health per se was coupled by the late 1800's, with the presentation of nationalistic ideas about the role of physical education. It was often expressed, for example, that in the multi-national state--such as Hungary was at the time--physical education and sports could, by promoting common loyalty to the state, considerably help in strengthening national unity.<sup>70</sup>

By the end of the period physical educators also emphasized the character-building effects of physical education. The first time this

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<sup>67</sup>Bohn, op. cit., pp. 280-86.

<sup>68</sup>Siklossy, I, op. cit., p. 399. <sup>69</sup>Bohn, op. cit., pp. 286-90.

<sup>70</sup>Zsigmond Fludorovich, "The National Genius in Physical Education," Országos Közepiskolai Tanargyesuleti Kozlony, 30:562, 1894-95.



aspect of physical education was officially referred to by educational authorities occurred in 1913, in the Physical Education Curriculum for Elementary School published by the Ministry of Education.<sup>71</sup> By the end of the period the physical education literature of the times reflected a concept of physical education which identified the promotion of health and physical fitness and that of character-building and their significance in terms of the national interest as the chief values of physical education. There was, however, no state-directed physical education philosophy formulated in this period.

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION

### Curriculum Content and Development

The earliest signs of physical education in Hungarian schools were the various play activities in which the students freely engaged outside regular school hours. These activities evidently aroused the attention of school authorities who deemed it necessary to regulate them to some extent. The first such regulations appeared in 1621 at the College of Sarospatak. While they permitted ball and skipping games, the regulations prohibited the throwing of stones, wrestling, shooting and spear-throwing and other games which endangered the lives of others.<sup>72</sup> When Comenius taught at Sarospatak between 1650 and 1654, his writings on physical education pointed the way toward a regular physical education program. Besides the passages in his best known work, the Orbis

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<sup>71</sup>K. Demeny, The Basic Principles of Elementary Physical Education (Budapest: Magyar Kiralyi Egyetemi Nyomda, 1918), p. 9.

<sup>72</sup>Siklossy, I, op. cit., p. 164.





Pictus, which he wrote at Sarospatak, he devoted a separate book to physical education. In his Fortis Redivivus, which he wrote for the students at Sarospatak, he considered it important to combine mental exertion with physical activity and emphasized the recreational aspects of games and contests. The most important feature of his book was a description of suggested activities which included running, jumping, throwing, wrestling, boxing and ball games.<sup>73</sup> Unfortunately, the influence of this amazingly modern concept of physical education on contemporary educational philosophy was very little. A century had to pass before similar ideas were again put forward on physical education in Hungary. However, Sarospatak's progressive physical education program in later years indicate that some of Comenius' ideas did survive at the College of the Hungarian Reformed Church.

When, in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, Maria Theresa, the Hapsburg Queen of Hungary, brought education under state control, she published a comprehensive body of royal decrees, regulations and principles pertaining to all phases and aspects of education. Consequently, the Ratio Educationis of 1777--as the publication was called--contained guidelines for physical education as well.<sup>74</sup> The topics dealt with in the Ratio Educationis concerned the physical health and safety of students, the nature of permissible physical activities and the allocation of playgrounds. By prohibiting swimming, skating and

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<sup>73</sup>Ibid., p. 172.

<sup>74</sup>Kalman Ivankovits (ed.), A Collection of Laws and Ministerial Orders Regarding Physical Education (Budapest: Stadium, 1935), pp. 7-9.



sleighting, the Ratio Educationis reflected contemporary preoccupation with safety in student activities. On the other hand, by stating that it should be the responsibility of the schools to provide the equipment and facilities for the students and by emphasizing the need for playgrounds--one near the school for everyday use and one outside the city for summer use--the Ratio Educationis was centuries ahead of its time in physical education thinking. But in the absence of a compulsory royal decree or parliamentary legislation, the progressive physical education program of the Ratio Educationis remained ineffectual for some time to come.

Although the ambitious program of the Ratio Educationis was not put into practice at the time of its publication, the ideas expressed in it about physical education slowly gained recognition, and by the first part of the nineteenth century the Protestant school boards began to introduce physical education as a regular compulsory subject into their curricula. In 1841, the Calvinist secondary school of Debrecen, one of the most important in the country, made physical education a compulsory subject for two periods per week.<sup>75</sup> By 1843, legislators also became aware of the importance of physical education. After a discussion lasting for one month, the Lower House of the Hungarian Parliament accepted a proposed law which would have made physical education compulsory in all the schools. The Upper House, however, rejected this bill.<sup>76</sup>

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<sup>75</sup>Protestant Church and School Journal, No. 1, 1842.

<sup>76</sup>S. Peterfy, The Laws and Educational Events of 1848 (Budapest: 1898), p. 39.



After the loss of the Hungarian War of Independence in 1849, the Austrian government published an educational directive, named Organizations Entwurf, for defeated Hungary. This document, which on the whole aimed at the Germanization of Hungary through education, listed physical education among the special subjects to be offered in the secondary schools if need required and if facilities permitted.<sup>77</sup> With the establishment of the Austro-Hungarian Dual Monarchy in 1867, Hungary was given full freedom in the management of her internal affairs. One of the first acts of the new Hungarian Ministry of Education in 1868 was to make physical education compulsory in both elementary and secondary schools.<sup>78</sup>

The first draft of the Law of 1868 proposed to introduce military physical exercises into the schools.<sup>79</sup> But the final wording defined the content of the new physical education course as physical exercise combined with military training. The military aspect of physical education became even less emphasized in the curricula drawn up for the various school systems. The curriculum published by the Ministry of Education for Catholic secondary schools in 1868 stated that the aim of physical training was to develop the skills and fitness of the whole human body through regular exercise.<sup>80</sup> And in two fifty-minute periods per week it prescribed calisthenics, heavy apparatus and hand apparatus exercises and marching drills to achieve this aim. For elementary schools the curriculum of 1871 listed marching drills, calisthenics, various types

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<sup>77</sup>Ivankovics, op. cit., p. 8.      <sup>78</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>79</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., p. 536.      <sup>80</sup>Ibid., p. 537.





of jumps and simple games.<sup>81</sup>

While this curriculum remained in effect until 1906, the curriculum of the secondary schools underwent some important changes during the last decades of the nineteenth century. The curriculum published in 1879 for the secondary schools contained such new activities as stone, discus and javelin throwing and pole vaulting.<sup>82</sup> And the instructions to this curriculum published in four pages next year, included some games and three compulsory field trips or hikes per year.<sup>83</sup> The curriculum of 1884 for all types of secondary schools (real gymnasia and gymnasia) contained fifteen pages of course content and explanation, the longest of any curricula published up to this date. The new events added were the high, broad, and deep jumps (jumping off various heights), and weight-lifting.<sup>84</sup> A peculiar feature of the classification of activities was the inclusion of track and field events with apparatus exercises. This was a reflection of the contemporary Hungarian practice of having various jumping, running, and throwing events in gymnastics competitions.

The appearance of games and modern track and field events in the curricula of the secondary schools indicates that slowly the authorities were becoming interested in the promotion of more varied physical

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<sup>81</sup>A. Szauter and A. Ambrus, Physical Education in the Elementary Schools (Pecs: 1871), pp. 229-30.

<sup>82</sup>Miklos Bely, The History of Physical Education in the Secondary Schools (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1940), p. 31.

<sup>83</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>84</sup>K. Porzolt, A Collection of Laws and Regulations Concerning Physical Education (Budapest: Aigner-Herkules, 1886), p. 73.



activities. This tendency became quite manifest by 1890 when a ministerial decree called attention to the importance of sports, games and also of competition in general.<sup>85</sup> Several new decrees appearing in the next few years aimed at the extension of the range of activities and at the development of regular competitions in the secondary schools. In 1891 the Minister of Religion and Education ordered the organization of the first National Secondary School Gymnastics Championships.<sup>86</sup> In the same year a ministerial decree ordained that games, field trips and skating should be given more scope in the physical education program.<sup>87</sup> In the next year a similar decree pointed out the importance of swimming in physical education.<sup>88</sup>

The last curriculum for the secondary schools in the pre-World War I period was published in 1899,<sup>89</sup> and it remained in force until 1924. The course content was grouped according to the following headings:

- I. Marching drills
- II. Calisthenics
- III. Apparatus work
- IV. Open air exercises (mostly track and field events)
- V. Games (including many relay-type games)
- VI. Skating (the school authorities were obliged to provide facilities).

For the purpose of motivation the curriculum prescribed the

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<sup>85</sup>Ivankovics, op. cit., p. 9.      <sup>86</sup>Loc. cit.      <sup>87</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>88</sup>"Skating in the Schools," Tornaugy (Budapest, 1890-91), pp. 49-50.

<sup>89</sup>Curriculum of Physical Education (Budapest: Ministry of Religion and Education, 1899).



holding of an annual year-end gymnastics competition, which included other activities as well. Similarly, it was made the responsibility of school authorities to develop a swimming and fencing program if local conditions permitted. Although no alteration was made in the number of the bi-weekly periods for physical education, a significant extension of physical education time was made possible with the addition of a compulsory games afternoon once a week per class.

Whereas the physical education curricula of the secondary schools were getting progressively more diverse, the curricula for elementary and civic schools showed very little development. The Elementary School Physical Education Curriculum for 1906 continued to place heavy emphasis on apparatus work, even though most of the elementary schools possessed neither gymnasias nor equipment and made no provisions for swimming and skating.<sup>90</sup> It was characteristic of the low esteem in which elementary physical education was held that in grades one and two only one period was allowed for physical education; in the upper grades two per week were allotted. A similar time allotment existed in the civic schools in 1909 when the first three grades received only one period of physical education per week in combined classes.

In 1913, however, a new physical education curriculum was published for the elementary schools, and its contents were more diverse and

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<sup>90</sup>Gy. Dollinger, "The Present Conditions of School Physical Education," The Surveys of the National Physical Education Council (Budapest: 1919), pp. 4-5.





progressive in nature than that of the previous ones.<sup>91</sup> This curriculum listed gymnastics, games and track and field activities and emphasized the importance of holding the physical education periods in the open air if conditions permitted. It suggested that students should be made conscious of essential health practices during the physical education periods and advocated that special attention and instruction should be provided for physically handicapped students. One of the most remarkable features of the new curriculum is in its definition of the aim of physical education. For the first time in Hungarian physical education history this curriculum referred to the significance of character building and the development of comradeship in the interest of national unity. This marked the appearance of nationalism in Hungarian physical education. One other important aim was to develop in the students a need for regular physical activity. This is a modern aspiration which remains among the objectives of current physical education systems all over the world.

#### Operation of the Program

While the foregoing discussion has summarized the legislative and curricular changes concerning physical education in Hungary prior to 1920, it does not present a clear picture of the effectiveness of the actual program. This needs to be examined in the context of its day-to-day operation, determined by such factors as facilities, teaching staff

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<sup>91</sup>K. Demeny, The Basic Principles of Elementary Physical Education (Budapest: Magyar Kiralyi Egyetemi Nyomda, 1918), p. 9.



and enforcement of regulations.

Although in 1868 physical education was made compulsory in Hungarian schools, the actual introduction of it was accomplished at a very slow rate. There were practically no gymnasia and very few even minimally trained instructors. In the years following 1868 most high schools where physical education was actually introduced were either renting the facilities of local gymnastics clubs or even arranging physical education instruction through them. The students of the Lutheran State High School of Budapest, for example, received physical education instruction in the National Gymnastics Union together with students of several other high schools.<sup>92</sup> This practice was followed in the provinces as well. As early as the 1868-89 school year, in the northern town of Selmecebanya, physical education instruction was provided for high school students through the local gymnastics club.<sup>93</sup>

For elementary schools, no such attempts were made in the early years, and consequently physical education instruction suffered. According to the report of the Ministry of Religion and Education, even in 1884, out of the 14,235 elementary schools in the country only 7,354 possessed some kind of facilities for physical education. And most of these were only summer or open air exercise grounds.<sup>94</sup>

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<sup>92</sup>L. Torkos(ed.), The Yearbook of the Lutheran Gymnasium of Pest, 1873-74 (Budapest: 1874), p. 35.

<sup>93</sup>J. Breznyik, The History of the Lutheran Church at Selmecebanya I-IV (Selmecebanya, 1889), IV, p. 364.

<sup>94</sup>Porzsolt, op. cit., p. 40.



Though much better than in the elementary schools, the situation regarding facilities in the high schools was far from satisfactory at this time.<sup>95</sup> Of the 177 high schools in Hungary, only seventy-seven were properly equipped. The provisions for open air activities were somewhat better. There were 143 high schools possessing an open air gymnasium, and of these 122 were equipped with apparatus.

In the 1890's, when the government made determined efforts to expand the physical education program with the addition of sports and games to the curriculum, it also made serious attempts to ensure that all high schools were provided with both indoor and outdoor facilities. The government's success, however, was limited. By 1898, of the 189 high schools, only 147 possessed gymnasia and many of these were of inadequate size.<sup>96</sup> Furthermore, partly because of their location in the basement and partly because of general negligence, many gymnasia were a health hazard due to their unhygienic condition.

According to the 1898 statistical report of Kemeny and Kovacs, the government was much more successful in providing playgrounds for the high schools.<sup>97</sup> In this year only about nine per cent of the non-secular high schools and 20 per cent of state high schools did not have an open air gymnasium. But since these statistics were based on a survey conducted

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<sup>95</sup>Ibid., p. 42.

<sup>96</sup>F. Kemeny and R. Kovacs, The Condition of Physical Education in Hungarian Schools in 1897-98 (Budapest: Magyarorszagi Tornatanitok Egylete, 1899), p. 33.

<sup>97</sup>Ibid., p. 46.





by mail with the cooperation of the participating schools, it is likely that the figures did not reflect actually existing conditions. This is all the more certain since in 1900 criticism was voiced in Hercules, a physical education organ of the time, that although the cities and municipalities had granted playground areas to the schools, as this was required by government legislation, in reality these areas were identical with the community grazing grounds or fair grounds which were not and could not be used by the schools.<sup>98</sup>

That the situation did not improve over the years is indicated by an article which appeared in 1918 in the official journal of physical educators. The writer of the article deplored the fact that even in 1918 very few schools had playgrounds and that often, the designated playground areas were used for private gardens by the principals or as tennis courts by the teachers.<sup>99</sup>

The lack of physical education instructors and the brevity and the consequent low quality of their training or its total absence presented another obstacle in the way of the development of physical education in the schools. The methods of physical education teacher training, the quality of teacher training and the status of physical education teachers in general is fully discussed later on in this chapter.

Besides the availability of facilities and the quality of teacher training, the actual conditions in the schools determined--in the final

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<sup>98</sup>J. Bernath, "The Present Conditions of School Physical Education," Testneveles, 6:171-72, 1918-19.

<sup>99</sup>Herkules, 8:119, 1900-01.



analysis--the effectiveness of the physical education program in this period. One of the factors most worthy of consideration is the extent to which content alterations prescribed by the curricula were actually put into practice in the schools. As has already been discussed previously, the originally gymnastics-orientated curricula were gradually modified to include varied sport activities as well. One of the major changes in this connection was the introduction of a weekly games afternoon in 1899 into the secondary schools with a content of ball games of the bat type, skating, swimming and soccer. By 1901 these games afternoons were officially launched by the Ministry of Religion and Education, which, in its educational budget for the 1900-01 school year, allotted a substantial sum towards paying physical education teachers for the extra hours they spent on supervising and directing the games afternoons.<sup>100</sup> In order to further promote the development of the games program, the Ministry of Religion and Education organized several courses for physical education teachers to train them in the techniques, rules and teaching of games.<sup>101</sup> That the educational authorities favored the games afternoon is indicated by its introduction to thirteen elementary schools in Budapest on an experimental basis. However, it seems probable that the program was not fully successful, since as late as 1911 complaints claiming that the games afternoons were still not introduced in all secondary schools appeared in the physical education literature.<sup>102</sup>

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<sup>100</sup>Bely, The History of Physical Education in the Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>101</sup>Siklossy, II, op. cit., p. 154.

<sup>102</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 145.



The regulations for the introduction of sport games, skating and swimming into the curricula were carried out with various results, although the available evidence indicates that there were definite attempts made in the secondary schools to promote these activities. According to statistics compiled in 1896, sport games were practiced in 73 per cent of secondary schools and swimming classes were conducted in 24 per cent of the schools.<sup>103</sup> But later evidence shows that in 1913, swimming was only taught on an experimental basis and only in the capital city.<sup>104</sup> It is also claimed by the same source--a survey on the condition of physical education by the National Physical Education Council--that not all the secondary schools included skating in their physical education program.

Another aspect of the actual operation of the physical education program was the shift from the German-type apparatus work involving mostly the teaching of skills and stunts to Ling's Swedish gymnastics system which placed heavy emphasis on the development of particular muscles through numerous repetitions. In 1907 the Ministry of Religion and Education proclaimed in one of its directives that a set of Swedish gymnastics exercises was to be practiced for fifteen minutes in every physical education period.<sup>105</sup> Although this particular directive was met with strong opposition by the teachers, Swedish gymnastics did, until

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<sup>103</sup>I. Medreczky, "The Condition of Physical Education in the Secondary School," Tornaugy, 9:130, 1896-97.

<sup>104</sup>Dollinger, op. cit., p. 24.

<sup>105</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 39.





World War I, dominate not only the gymnastics but the whole physical education program. As a result, much of the beneficial influence of German gymnastics, namely the development of courage, determination and initiative through the learning of skills and stunts requiring these qualities, was lost to physical education.

Finally, the role of military training should also be mentioned in connection with the content of physical education in this period. It was noted previously that the first draft of the law which proposed to make physical education a compulsory subject in the schools aimed at the introduction of military physical exercises. This version, however, was not passed by Parliament and military training received a very minor role in the new physical education curricula. But the tendency toward extending military training in the schools continues to re-appear during the period. On several occasions legislation was proposed by the Minister of Religion and Education and that of National Defence which would have made formal military training compulsory in the schools.<sup>106</sup> Opposed ardently not only by physical education but other teachers and educational authorities, these attempts failed. The supporters of military training were, however, successful to the extent that military training was allowed in the schools on a voluntary basis. That this option was not taken up by many schools is well illustrated by the fact that in 1894-95 only two schools organized military training courses.<sup>107</sup> More successful was the promotion of target-shooting. In 1907 permission was granted to organize target-shooting practices during the

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<sup>106</sup>Ibid., p. 134.

<sup>107</sup>Ibid., p. 141.



games afternoon or at other times if school authorities so desired.<sup>108</sup> Eventually target-shooting as a sport became quite popular within the secondary schools, but formal military training was introduced only in a few of them.

In addition to such factors as facilities, teaching personnel, curricular content and the realization of regulations, there were many other features which characterized physical education in this period. These features are so varied that it is difficult to classify them under a common heading. For this reason they will be dealt with in a somewhat arbitrary order.

Though the curriculum of 1868 prescribed only two periods of physical education per week in the secondary schools, it is a measure of the interest in physical education at this early age that in 1879 many secondary schools provided more than two hours per week for physical education. The secondary schools of the Hungarian Reformed Church, for example, were instructed by the Educational Committee of the Reformed Church to ensure that all students participated in physical activity at least four times per week for one hour on each occasion.<sup>109</sup> In the latter part of the pre-World War I era an interesting attempt in connection with physical education was the promotion of brief periods of exercises at the beginning of academic lessons in the elementary schools.

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<sup>108</sup>L. Saroi Szabo, A Proposal for the Organization of the Military Training of Hungarian Youth (Budapest, 1908), p. 24.

<sup>109</sup>A. Molnar, The Educational Regulations of the Hungarian Reformed Church (Budapest: 1879), p. 61.



This attempt was successful in the capital but failed entirely in the provinces.<sup>110</sup>

Two very positive and successful aspects of the physical education program were the yearly anthropometric and strength measurements conducted on all students of the secondary schools at the beginning of the school year and the year-end physical education displays ordained to be held from 1892 on.<sup>111</sup> Again, as was the case with all the ministerial decrees, this decree did not become fully effective, at least not until 1899, in which year physical education displays were held in only 66 per cent of secondary schools.<sup>112</sup>

The evaluation of pupils in physical education was taken quite seriously. It was common practice to fail uncooperative or indolent students. In 1899 the failure rate in the secondary schools was 1.98 per cent.<sup>113</sup> No one was failed because of a physical handicap. The disabled students were exempt from taking physical education. In 1899, for example, 5.7 per cent of the secondary school students were exempt from taking physical education.<sup>114</sup> In later years this percentage rose as high as 20 per cent in the city schools, and complaints appeared in the physical education literature claiming that well-to-do and influential parents generally succeeded in obtaining the medical certificate

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<sup>110</sup>Dollinger, op. cit., p. 31.

<sup>111</sup>M. Szafka (ed.), A Collection of Laws, Ministerial Orders and Physical Education Statistics (Testgyakorlati almanach 1905-06. Budapest: Rozsa, 1905), p. 7.

<sup>112</sup>Medreczky, op. cit., p. 130.

<sup>113</sup>Kemeny and Kovacs, op. cit., p. 75. <sup>114</sup>Ibid., p. 75.





which authorized the exemption of their children from physical education.<sup>115</sup>

A remarkable feature of school physical education, at least theoretically speaking, was the setting up of the Institute of School Physicians in 1885. It was to be the responsibility of school physicians to ensure the health of the students in general by supervising facilities, examining students regularly and by preventing the spread of communicable diseases. However, due to the small remuneration of the physicians and their unreasonably heavy work load, the Institute failed to be successful; although it continued to exist till the end of the period.<sup>116</sup>

In 1915 provisions were made for the physical education of physically handicapped children in the elementary and civic schools of Budapest.<sup>117</sup> The exercise program was mainly concerned with the correction of spinal deformities. Finally, one of the most significant developments in this period was the appointment of district physical education inspectors. This process began on a small scale in 1906 when six part-time physical education inspectors were appointed to supervise the work of about thirty secondary schools.<sup>118</sup> In subsequent years additional inspectors were appointed to supervise all the secondary schools

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<sup>115</sup>A. Juba, The Institute of School Physicians is Twenty-Five Years Old (Budapest: 1911), p. 98.

<sup>116</sup>A. Juba, "The School Physicians Institute in Hungary," Neptanítók Lapja, 39:2-7, 1909.

<sup>117</sup>Dollinger, op. cit., p.9.

<sup>118</sup>J. Maurer, "The Main Shortcomings of Our Physical Education," Tornaügy, 16:251, 1905-07.



in the country.

It should--by now--be evident that in this discussion of physical education in the pre-World War I period most of the references have been made to secondary schools. This is no oversight. The fact is that physical education in the elementary schools was either totally lacking or seriously neglected. According to the report of the Ministry of Religion and Education, in 1884 there was no physical education instruction of any kind in 6,477 of the 14,235 elementary schools in Hungary. In 490 schools physical education was taught but inadequately, and only in 7,268 schools was the instruction satisfactory.<sup>119</sup> Considering that physical education was made compulsory only sixteen years before and without sufficient financial support to provide for facilities and the training of teachers, these statistics are quite favorable. There is, however, no evidence that the situation improved in later years, except in the capital where elementary physical education--as was indicated previously--became a very serious concern of educational authorities. Criticism from private and official authors continued to appear in the physical education literature until the very end of the period. It is evident from these criticisms that physical education in the elementary schools was almost totally neglected in the country schools.<sup>120</sup> Since in 1918, 70 per cent of the elementary schools were one-room schools without a gymnasium, this neglect is quite understandable.<sup>121</sup> A

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<sup>119</sup>Porzsolt, op. cit., p. 45.      <sup>120</sup>Maurer, op. cit., p. 144.

<sup>121</sup>Demeny, op. cit., p. 15.



quotation from a study of physical education conducted by the National Physical Education Council in 1913 best describes the conditions of physical education in the elementary schools in the pre-World War I era: "In our elementary schools--with a few exceptions--very little attention and effort is devoted to the proper teaching of physical education."<sup>122</sup>

Although physical education was taught badly or not at all in many elementary schools, yet a considerable amount of good work was carried on if one considers the country as a whole. But in the commercial and technical schools not even legal provisions were made for the teaching of physical education.<sup>123</sup> Similarly, there was absolutely no formal instruction provided at the college and university level.<sup>124</sup> The introduction of physical education into these schools and colleges was accomplished only after World War I.

### Physical Education for Girls

Finally, reference should be made to the physical education of girls in this period. The legislative measures and curricular content for girls' physical education were generally identical or comparable to those for boys' physical education. However, due to traditional views which restricted the introduction of physical education for girls, the implementation of their program was much slower than that of the boys. As late as 1882 an author complained that physical education had not yet

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<sup>122</sup>Dollinger, op. cit., p. 11.      <sup>123</sup>Bernath, op. cit., p. 72.

<sup>124</sup>Dollinger, op. cit., p. 13.





been introduced to the girls' secondary schools.<sup>125</sup> While by 1891 physical education for girls became a reality, there were numerous objections to its introduction by parents on the grounds that it would make girls muscular.<sup>126</sup> By the 1900's these objections diminished and physical education for girls was introduced in both elementary and secondary schools. But as in boys' physical education, the actual teaching was often perfunctory or absolutely lacking, especially in the elementary schools.

### Evaluation of the Program

Due to the length of the pre-World War I period and the changes which occurred during this time, it is difficult to make all-encompassing general statements about the state of physical education in the whole era. Several negative and positive aspects, however, stand out clearly.

Despite such early legislation providing for the teaching of physical education in both elementary and secondary schools, physical education was neglected even in the 1900's at the elementary level. In general, facilities were either lacking or left much to be desired, even in the secondary schools; the training of physical education instructors was insufficient and the status of physical education as a subject in the schools was low. This low status was largely the result of the prejudice towards physical exercise which remained in the public mind from

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<sup>125</sup>L. Turjay, Special Gymnastics Exercises for Women (Budapest: Nagel Bernat, 1882), p. 59.

<sup>126</sup>Gy. Zador, "Is It Necessary for Girls to Take Physical Education?" Herkules, 5:3-4, 1891.



earlier years and partly the result of the discriminating regulations of the Ministry of Religion and Education concerning physical education. Prime examples of such discrimination were two regulations which hindered the development of the prestige of physical education within the schools not only in this but in the next period as well.<sup>127</sup> One of these was the exemption of private students--students who did not attend regular classes--from taking an examination in physical education. The other unfavorable regulation excluded physical education marks from the calculation of the students' average standing.

Of the positive aspects of physical education in this period the creation of physical education inspectorates and the regular and generally good quality programs in the secondary schools were perhaps the most outstanding. Undoubtedly, the introduction of compulsory physical education in 1868 and the various legislative changes and ministerial orders which followed indicate a strong interest in physical education by the Hungarian government at an age when in most European countries no provisions were made by the governments for the compulsory teaching of physical education.<sup>128</sup>

#### Sports in the Schools Up to 1918

While there was at least an official attempt made for the development of physical education in the elementary schools, no sport competition was even thought of by the educational authorities for elementary

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<sup>127</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>128</sup>Van Dalen, et al., op. cit., complete text.



schools. Participation in various games and sports outside regular school hours occurred only at the secondary level in the pre-World War I period.

As was indicated in the discussion of the origins of physical education in Hungarian schools, before organized physical education classes were provided by the schools, the students spontaneously engaged themselves in various games and sports. These activities were never organized regularly on a competitive basis either by the students or by the schools. On the contrary, they were restricted or prohibited by authorities right up to the introduction of regular physical education classes.

It was in 1882, fourteen years after the compulsory introduction of physical education into the secondary schools, that the first high school sport club was formed at the Calvinist Secondary High School of Budapest.<sup>129</sup> Within the next fifteen years twelve other schools established their own sport clubs. Some of these were originally concerned with only one sport, as, for example, gymnastics, rowing and outdoor games, but later on included all the then popular sport activities in the schools.

High school sports received a great impetus in 1891 when the Ministry of Religion and Education made the periodical organization of national gymnastics championships mandatory.<sup>130</sup> The first Hungarian National High School Gymnastics Championship was held on May 18, 1891,

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<sup>129</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 58.

<sup>130</sup>"The First National Gymnastics Championships for Secondary Schools--1891," Tornaugy, 10:157, 1890-91.





at Budapest, with 3,000 participants from 101 schools of sixty cities. Competitions were held not only in mass calisthenics and apparatus work but in such track and field events as the 100, 150, and 200-yard dash, the 150-yard hurdles, the javelin throw and high jump. The National Championship proved a great success with physical educators, educational authorities and the public as well. Consequently, it was held regularly until 1909, when unexpectedly it was discontinued. This was a severe blow to high school sports. However, district championships continued to be organized annually till the outbreak of World War I.<sup>131</sup> Although at the beginning, gymnastics and track and field events comprised the whole program, later on rowing, wrestling, fencing, boxing, swimming and soccer were also included occasionally.<sup>132</sup>

Due to the opportunity for competition the number of high school sport clubs increased to eighteen by 1898 and to twenty-six in 1910.<sup>133</sup> However, in view of the fact that there were close to two hundred high schools in Hungary at this time, this number is extremely low. The reason for this small number of high school sport clubs was partially their voluntary nature--schools were not compelled to form a sport club--and partially the influence of adult amateur clubs which enticed the best high school students to compete in their colors.

The problem of adult amateur clubs plagued the high school sport program till almost the end of the period. Since more and more of the best high school athletes were beginning to compete for the adult amateur

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<sup>131</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., pp. 173-79. <sup>132</sup>Ibid., p. 176.

<sup>133</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 107.



clubs, in 1898 the Minister of Religion and Education prohibited high school students from belonging to such clubs and even from competing in competitions organized by them.<sup>134</sup> But for some unexplained reason, probably because of social and political pressure from the upper class leadership of these amateur clubs, student participation in these clubs was generally tolerated by school authorities. Articles appeared in contemporary physical education literature condemning this condition. A frequent objection raised was that the moral and physical well-being of students were jeopardized through competing against and associating with adult athletes.<sup>135</sup> But the whole system, which officially disallowed competition but in practice tolerated it, was perhaps more harmful morally. By 1912 it became common practice that high school students competed under pseudo-names in the amateur clubs and often physical education teachers followed the sport career of their students under such pseudo-names.<sup>136</sup> Only in a few provincial schools did the authorities enforce the ministerial order prohibiting students from competing for the adult amateur clubs.<sup>137</sup>

The main underlying cause of this confused state of affairs was the absence of regular outlets for competition within the school system

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<sup>134</sup>"The Club Activities of Secondary School Students," Herkules, 2:9-10, 1898.

<sup>135</sup>"Secondary School Students and the Amateur Adult Clubs," Tornaugy, 5:93-95, 1905-06.

<sup>136</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 109.

<sup>137</sup>"Students in the Sport Clubs," Herkules, 1:2-3, 1912.



for talented students. Finally, the Ministry of Religion and Education realized that besides restrictive orders positive action was necessary to improve conditions in high school sports. In 1913 the Ministry ordered the enforcement of old regulations pertaining to high school sports and also the organization of sport clubs in all high schools in Hungary.<sup>138</sup> Regrettably, this ministerial order could not take full effect because World War I broke out in 1913, and during the war years high school sports completely disappeared. The competitors of the amateur sport clubs were almost solely high school students, since most of the adult sportsmen were enlisted in the armed forces.

Two major features characterized high school sports before World War I. First, participation in sport activities and limited competition increased gradually from the 1880's. The voluntary high school sport clubs, the compulsory games afternoons discussed previously, and the national and district gymnastics championship contributed equally to this growth. Another hitherto unmentioned factor was the competitions held for high school students by the adult amateur sport clubs. Second, quality sport for high school students was fully controlled by the amateur sport clubs, which control, while improving the standard of high school sport, had a harmful moral effect on high school athletics.

### College Sport Up to 1920

Since there were no provisions made for regular physical education

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<sup>138</sup>"The Compulsory Formation of School Sport Clubs," Ifjusági Testnevelés, 4:1-2, 1913.





classes at the higher institutions for learning in Hungary, the only opportunity the students could have had for physical activity would have been through sport clubs. These were, however, entirely non-existent at the colleges until 1871, when the first college sport club was organized in Hungary at the Forestry and Mining Academy of Selmecbanya in Northern Hungary. In 1881, the second sport club was established at the Calvinist College of Sarospatak, where Comenius had taught almost two centuries before.<sup>139</sup> Although the appearance of these sport clubs was significant, no serious development could take place in college sport until club activity was started in the capital as well.

The first step towards the formation of a college sport club at Budapest was taken in 1886 when the Reading Club of the University of Sciences and Technology made arrangements with the National Gymnastics Union to hold classes for university students.<sup>140</sup> There must have been considerable interest in the gymnastics classes for more than eighty students appeared for the first lesson. In the next year the University Athletic Club was formed, and on January 23, 1887, it held its first competition. The program consisted of one event, a 14,920 meter long walk with a large number of enthusiastic participants.<sup>141</sup>

After these initial years the pace of development quickened, and starting in 1895 new sport clubs were formed every year. In 1895 the Franz Joseph University of Kolozsvar (Cluj), Transylvania, was founded,

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<sup>139</sup>Ervin Szerellemhegyi, A Sport Enciklopedija, Vol. II (Budapest: 1928), p. 306.

<sup>140</sup>Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 213. <sup>141</sup>Loc. cit.



and by 1897 it employed a full-time instructor. The club provided instruction in military drill, fencing and boxing, and on Sundays and holidays it organized hikes, bicycle tours and ball games for the students.<sup>142</sup> The Association Football Club of the University of Sciences and Technology of Budapest was founded in 1897. In 1898, a very important event was the foundation of the University Athletic Club of Budapest, which was open for all university students in the capital. The club sent its first competitor to an international fencing competition at Turin, Italy, on November 18, 1898, and the individual won first prize in sabre fencing.<sup>143</sup>

In the next few years more and more clubs were formed, and by 1907 the college sport clubs were powerful enough to unite in a National College Sport Federation.<sup>144</sup> It was a further sign of development that girls also began to join the clubs. In 1913 the University Athletic Club of Budapest had forty-six female members.<sup>145</sup> By 1918, despite the war, the number of members in the college clubs was quite large. At the Technological University of Budapest, out of 3,000 engineering students enrolled, 450 belonged to the club. At the Faculty of Arts and Sciences,

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<sup>142</sup>Lajos Vermes, "Gymnastics at the University of Kolozsvar," Herkules, 4:27-28, 1897.

<sup>143</sup>"The History of the Track and Field Club of the University of Budapest," manuscript from The Collection of Laszlo Kun of the Hungarian College of Physical Education on the history of Hungarian sport and physical education.

<sup>144</sup>Jeno Garam, Twenty-Eight Years from the History of College Sport (Manuscript, Budapest, 1935), p. 51.

<sup>145</sup>Margit Palfoldy, "Women in College Sport," Sport Vilag, 14:6, 1913.



out of 8,000 students, 300 were active club members. While these membership figures are not large if compared to the total enrollment, they were large enough to ensure a good level of athletic performance. In the pre-World War I period, and even more so after the war, the college sport clubs competed successfully against the adult amateur clubs. Through their participation in the leagues and national championships of the various sport associations, the college sport clubs significantly contributed to development of Hungarian sport in general.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that the formation of college sport clubs in Hungary was a unique development on the continent. No other European country followed the example of England and the United States at this time in organizing college sport separately from adult amateur sport.<sup>146</sup>

#### Physical Education Teacher Training

The history of physical education teacher training in Hungary originates from about the first part of the nineteenth century. It has its beginnings in various short term courses conducted by private clubs concerned mainly with the teaching of gymnastics. Due chiefly to the short period of training, the salaries and status of physical education teachers were extremely low in this period. This is the reason why the history of physical education teacher training in Hungary is closely associated with the struggle of the physical education teachers to better their status.

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<sup>146</sup>Garam, loc. cit.





In 1833 Ignacz Clair, a veteran captain from Napoleon's army, opened a physical training school, named the Physical Training Union of Pest, in Budapest.<sup>147</sup> The first physical education instructors in Hungary were trained in this school.<sup>148</sup> Although there is not much information available regarding the actual operation of this institution, it is known that by 1861 sixty-five physical education instructors completed its training course which was solely based on German gymnastics.<sup>149</sup>

In 1867 the Physical Training Union of Pest amalgamated with the National Gymnastic Union, a private club, which then continued on with the training of physical education instructors. For fifty-five years between 1868 and 1923 the National Gymnastic Union was the main and at some periods the sole institution concerned with physical education teacher training.

Physical education teacher training at the National Gymnastic Union began on a minor scale.<sup>150</sup> In 1867 two elementary school teachers asked to be instructed in the teaching of physical education. Since there was at this time no public course offered by the Union, they were given private lessons. In 1868 they took a public examination and received diplomas which authorized them to teach gymnastics. The first

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<sup>147</sup>News item in Honmuvesz (Budapest), February 16, 1883.

<sup>148</sup>J. Zimanyi, A Study of Physical Education (Pest: 1883), p.145.

<sup>149</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 362.

<sup>150</sup>B. Bernath, The Formation and Development of the National Gymnastics Union (Budapest: Czettel-Deutsch, 1896), p. 18.



regular course offered in physical education teacher training began on November 15, 1868 and ended on April 15, 1869. Of the eight candidates taking the public examination, one was qualified to teach in the elementary schools, three in secondary schools, three in the normal schools and one did not receive a diploma. The next year six diplomas and in 1871 two diplomas were awarded. The number of candidates entering physical education teacher training began to increase only when physical education was given recognition and status in the schools by the Education Law of 1868, Section XXXVII.<sup>151</sup>

The Education Law of 1868 made physical training, as physical education was then called, compulsory in both elementary and secondary schools. In order to ensure a supply of instructors, in 1871 the Ministry of Education concluded an agreement with the National Gymnastic Union regarding the training of physical education teachers.<sup>152</sup> In return for an annual grant of 5000.00 florints, a significant amount at the time, the Union agreed to conduct a six-month winter course and a six-week summer course; for the latter, only applicants with previous experience in physical education would be accepted. The Union was also obliged to admit into the summer course students sent by the Minister of Education, but their number could not be over one hundred in any one year. Finally, it was also stipulated in the agreement that the state would appoint a commissioner to supervise the examinations conducted by the National Gymnastic Union. The commissioner would be given veto rights

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<sup>151</sup>Ivankovits, op. cit., p. 8.      <sup>152</sup>Ibid., p. 9.



over the awarding of diplomas.

The new program offered by the National Gymnastic Union included the following subjects:<sup>153</sup>

History and Basic Concepts of Gymnastics;  
Theory of Teaching Gymnastics;  
Dissection and Anatomy;  
Physiology;  
Health;  
Direction of Drill, Calisthenics and Apparatus Work;  
Practical Gymnastics;  
Fencing.

It is evident from the course of studies that in this period the study of gymnastics constituted the major part of the physical education teacher training course in Hungary, although it should be added that gymnastics at this time included some track and field activities and even weight-lifting.

Since the state began to display more interest in physical education, the number of participants in the training course increased from a low of two in 1870-71 to about twenty-five to thirty during the following years. For example, in 1882 there were twenty-five candidates of whom one did not receive a diploma and in 1895 there were thirty candidates of whom six failed to qualify for the diploma.<sup>154</sup>

The training for women physical education teachers also began. The first course for them was instituted in 1881.<sup>155</sup> Their program closely corresponded in content to that of the men. On the whole, however, there were relatively few women entering the program and there was

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<sup>153</sup> Bohn, op. cit., pp. 362-63.

<sup>154</sup> B. Bernath, op. cit., Appendix. <sup>155</sup> Ibid., p. 20.





a shortage of qualified women physical education teachers. It was a common practice that male teachers instructed physical education in the girls' schools.<sup>156</sup>

To be admitted to these training courses, candidates had to have a secondary school diploma. They were also required to pass a medical check and an entrance examination consisting of a theoretical and a practical part. Discipline was maintained by stringent regulations. One week of unauthorized absence or improper conduct resulted in expulsion from the program. The examinations consisted of three parts: written, oral and practical. A supplemental examination was allowed in one course only. Failure in more than one course necessitated the repetition of the whole year's work.<sup>157</sup>

Depending on their knowledge and ability displayed during the examination, successful candidates were awarded diplomas for the teaching of physical education at various levels. So, of the 1,172 diplomas awarded by the National Gymnastic Union until 1895, 443 authorized their recipients to teach in the elementary schools, 256 in the junior secondary schools, 307 in the senior high schools and forty-four at any other institution for learning. The remaining 123 diplomas were given to women candidates authorizing them to teach in the secondary girls' schools.<sup>158</sup>

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<sup>156</sup> M. Hodaszy, The Training of Women Physical Education Teachers (Budapest: 1932), p. 74.

<sup>157</sup> Excerpts from the Calendar of the National Gymnastics Union (Nemzeti Tornaegylet, Budapest: 1911), pp. 1-4.

<sup>158</sup> B. Bernath, op. cit., p. 20.



During the nineteenth century, besides the National Gymnastic Union other gymnastic clubs and institutions also participated in the training of physical education instructors. In 1867 the Physical Fitness Club of Sopron held a short course for 127 normal school students.<sup>159</sup> In 1871 the Physical Fitness Club of Nagykanizsa held a similar summer course.<sup>160</sup> In 1881 the Minister of Cults and Education granted permission to the Physical Fitness Club of Buda to hold summer courses and award diplomas to physical education instructors.<sup>161</sup> In the same year the Minister gave permission to the head of a religious order in Miskolc to conduct a training course for physical education teachers. Dr. Bajai, the priest-physical educator, himself completed the first summer course held by the National Gymnastic Union and following that time carried out a sound program of physical education at the Catholic secondary school of Miskolc. It was partly as an acknowledgement for his work that he was given permission to conduct the course. Between 1872 and 1892 the Gymnastics and Fencing Club of Kolozsvár issued thirty diplomas to gymnastics instructors.<sup>162</sup>

In 1886 the State Normal School for teachers of the civic schools (grades 5-8 in North American terms) introduced physical education teacher training into its program. During their three years of

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<sup>159</sup>Bely, Physical Education, op. cit., p. 216. <sup>160</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>161</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 196.

<sup>162</sup>Letter of the Gymnastics and Fencing Union of Kolozsvár to the Hungarian National Gymnastics Federation, April 7, 1892, from The Collection of Laszlo Kun of the Hungarian College of Physical Education on the history of Hungarian sport and physical education.



teacher training, students at this "normal" school completed ninety-six hours of theoretical and two hundred hours of practical work. These hours were in sharp contrast with the sixty hours of theoretical and ninety hours of practical work at the National Gymnastic Union. Of these teacher training programs discussed above, only the State Normal School's training course continued to exist until the beginning of the twentieth century and it provided a strong competition for the National Gymnastic Union.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century a change occurred in the philosophy of physical education in Hungary and in addition to gymnastics other activities appeared in the program given by the National Gymnastic Union. This was largely due to criticism of the old program offered by the Union. For example, in 1900, the inclusion of such sports as swimming, skating, track and field, rowing and boxing in the physical education training course was suggested by Tivadar Andor in his book about physical education teacher training abroad and in Hungary.<sup>163</sup> It was also argued that in many sports clubs where gymnastics was not the sole activity graduates of the National Gymnastic Union's course could not do a satisfactory job, while completion of the course qualified them to take such a coaching position.<sup>164</sup> The development which occurred in the program of the National Gymnastic Union as a result of these criticisms is well reflected by the replacement of the term

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<sup>163</sup>T. Andor, The Training of Physical Education Teachers Abroad and At Home (Budapest: 1900), p. 28.

<sup>164</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 215.





"gymnastics"--previously used to describe most physical activities--with the term "physical training" in the calendar of the Union for the year 1911.<sup>165</sup> The subjects included in the program by this time were as follows:<sup>166</sup>

- History of Physical Training;
- Theory of Physical Training;
- Dissection and Anatomy;
- Physiology;
- Health;
- Direction of Class Work;
- Practical Gymnastics;
- First Aid;
- Methodology;
- Skating;
- Winter Sports and Excursions;
- Swimming;
- Games.

As can be seen from this list, the training of physical education teachers, which was mostly gymnastics-oriented in the nineteenth century, was at this time approaching diversity. Although track and field was not included in the program, students could receive instruction in this sport on a voluntary basis. From the early 1900's this instruction was given free by the Hungarian Track and Field Club which received an annual grant of 3,000.00 florints from the government for its efforts.<sup>167</sup>

At the end of the pre-World War I period physical education teacher training in Hungary was conducted at three levels.<sup>168</sup> Elementary school teachers received training in the teaching of physical education in the normal schools. Male teachers of the civic schools were

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<sup>165</sup> Excerpts, Calendar of the National Gymnastics Union, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

<sup>166</sup> Bohn, op. cit., pp. 363-64.      <sup>167</sup> Bely, Secondary School, op. cit.

<sup>168</sup> The Encyclopedia of Elementary Education (Budapest: 1900), p. 388.



instructed in the State Normal School for Civic School Teachers. Women teachers received instruction in the teaching of physical education in the Elizabeth Girls' School. Completion of the physical education training course at these normal schools also qualified the participants for teaching in the normal schools. Officially, the highest level of physical education teacher training was the course given by the National Gymnastic Union, although--as was pointed out earlier--this course was actually shorter than the one given by the State Normal School for Civic School Teachers. Successful completion of the course conducted by the National Gymnastic Union qualified the participants to teach in both normal and secondary schools, the universities, and also to coach in sport clubs.

While the quality and length of physical education teacher training provided by the State Normal School for Civic School Teachers and the National Gymnastic Union is quite low by today's standards, these institutions did at least carry out a regular program of training. Consequently, it was ensured that those who passed the examinations obtained a certain level of proficiency in the instruction of physical education. Much worse was the situation in the normal schools which trained teachers for the elementary schools. In most of these normal schools the lack of gymnasias and playgrounds prevented the effective teaching of physical education to the prospective elementary teachers. In the 1884-85 school year, for example, of the seventy normal schools in the country only twenty-three had gymnasias and only forty-one possessed some kind of



outdoor gymnastics facilities.<sup>169</sup> Under these conditions, it is not surprising that the training of elementary school teachers was extremely inadequate in the field of physical education.

#### Status of Physical Education Teachers

While the quality of physical education teacher training between 1833, from the time of the first formally organized training course, and 1918, undoubtedly improved somewhat, the duration of the courses remained very short; even the longest of them did not surpass ten months in total instruction time. The brevity of these courses, on the one hand, made it impossible to adequately cover the numerous new sports which were being accepted into the curricula of elementary and secondary schools. On the other hand, it also excluded the possibility of an extensive pedagogical and academic education. It was due mainly to the short term physical education training courses and their consequent inadequacy that the status of physical education teachers compared to that of other school teachers continued to be quite low until the end of the period. The origins of this low status emanated from the minimal qualifications required from physical education instructors at the time of the introduction of physical education into the schools and the low official status and salary awarded to them by the Ministry of Education.

At the beginning of the 1870's practicing physical education instructors could be divided into three main groups according to their qualifications:

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<sup>169</sup> Siklossy, III, op. cit., p. 158.





1. those who possessed diplomas awarded by the Physical Training Union of Pest;
2. those who completed the course offered by the National Gymnastic Union;
3. and those who did not possess any formal qualifications.

The statistics collected from 144 secondary schools representing 79.56 per cent of the total number well illustrates this point. In 1875 there were 148 physical education instructors in these 144 secondary schools.

Of these:<sup>170</sup>

1. forty-six possessed diplomas awarded either by the Physical Training Union of Pest or the National Gymnastic Union;
2. ten possessed diplomas obtained abroad;
3. ninety-two had not qualifications at all.

Some of the latter group had been fencing and dance instructors but most of them were veteran army sergeants. In general, these instructors had little formal education and they also lacked pedagogical training.

The salary of physical education instructors was extraordinarily low. In 1875 the average yearly salary of physical education instructors was 330.00 florints, while the teachers of academic subjects received an annual salary of 1,400.00 florints in the provinces and 1,800.00 florints in Budapest.<sup>171</sup> But in some schools physical education instructors received even lower remunerations. At a provincial town in 1874 the caretaker of the school was allotted 157.00 florints as his yearly salary, but the physical education instructor received only 100.00 florints.<sup>172</sup> In contrast to the tenure of teachers of academic subjects

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<sup>170</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 196. <sup>171</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>172</sup>M. Karacson, The Yearbook of the Gymnasium of Marosvasarhely (Marosvasarhely: 1895), p. 95.



and that of other public employees (most of the teachers were classified as public servants) their appointment to a position was only temporary and they did not enjoy any pension benefits until 1894.<sup>173</sup> Consequently, during the nineteenth century practically all the physical education instructors worked in several jobs. According to the statistics for the 1898-99 school year, out of the 224 physical education instructors in the country, only seven had no other jobs besides teaching.<sup>174</sup>

It occurred quite frequently that in the summer physical education instructors put on gymnastic displays and organized competitions among themselves in fencing or cycling at various resorts in the country.<sup>175</sup> In an age when even stage acting was considered unrespectable as a profession, this method of earning money was despised by the middle and upper classes. The involvement of physical education instructors in entertainment resembling circus performances, certainly contributed to the low prestige that the position of a physical education instructor possessed in this era. But the status of the physical education instructor was a low one even in the school. In most schools physical education instructors were not considered to be equal colleagues of the academic teaching staff and they were not admitted to the staff committee, a body empowered to decide on school policies and the final grades of all

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<sup>173</sup>L. Grabowiecky, "Teacher and Gymnastics Teacher," Tornaugy, 3:2, 1886-87.

<sup>174</sup>R. Kovacs, "Teachers of Physical Education in the Secondary School," Tornaugy, 11:171, 1898-99.

<sup>175</sup>L. Horvath, "The Physical Educators of Secondary Schools," Tornaugy, 10:147, 1894-95.



students.<sup>176</sup>

The official status and general prestige of physical education instructors improved slowly as organized attempts were made by the National Union of Gymnastics Teachers to improve qualifications and obtain more concessions from the Ministry of Education. On the repeated requests of the Union of Gymnastic Teachers the short summer courses were abolished in 1886,<sup>177</sup> and by the beginning of the twentieth century physical education teachers became classified as permanent employees of both state and denominational schools, although in 1910 they were still in the lowest category among all state employees. However, starting in the latter part of the nineteenth century and continuing up to the beginning of World War I, there were numerous suggestions and plans put forward to the Ministry of Education and to Parliament by eminent physical education teachers individually and by the National Union of Gymnastics Teachers collectively to reform physical education teacher training and thereby also raise the status of physical education teachers. As a result of these efforts, in 1912 the National Gymnastic Union extended its six-month long training course to eight months and increased the number of periods to fifteen per week, of which three were devoted to practice teaching. In 1913 a further addition of four hours per week followed.<sup>178</sup> But even then physical educators were not satisfied

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<sup>176</sup>Kemeny and Kovacs, op. cit., p. 75.

<sup>177</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 202.

<sup>178</sup>Bely, Physical Education, op. cit., p. 220.





with the extent of the training program of the National Gymnastic Union and, consequently, it was continually advocated by them that physical education teacher training should be extended to two or three years in duration. Unfortunately, because of the outbreak of World War I, these reform attempts only succeeded in 1925, when physical education teacher training was instituted at the college level in Hungary.



## CHAPTER IV

### PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1918-1945

#### PHYSICAL EDUCATION

##### Introduction

The loss of the First World War by the Central Powers resulted in the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The hitherto subject races of the Empire proceeded to form their own independent national states. The Trianon Treaty destroyed the thousand-year old historic Hungary and deprived her of three-quarters of her territory and half of her population.<sup>1</sup> As an outcome of this treaty three million Hungarians were placed under foreign rule in the new states of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia and in Rumania. The main purpose of the Hungarian government was to recover the lost territories and to re-unite the three million Hungarians with those of the mother country. This intention was equally revealed in its irredentist foreign and in its chauvinistic internal policies. Consequently, education, sport and physical education were, just as other social forces and organizations, intentionally employed by the government to further its nationalistic policies.

##### Philosophy of Education

By the end of the pre-World War I period the concept that the

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<sup>1</sup>Charles C. Bayley, Frank P. Chambers, and Christina P. Harris, This Age of Conflict (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1950), p. 126.



interests of the state take priority over those of the individual emerged in Hungarian educational philosophy. This concept was clearly expressed by Gyula Kornis, a professor of education and also secretary to the Minister of Religion and Education, who set up an educational theory on the premise that the function of the state is to preserve, pass on and develop the spiritual, intellectual and physical values of a given culture.<sup>2</sup> In accordance with Kornis' views, therefore, education, one of the organs of the state, should aim at the preservation, passing on and the development of the spiritual and intellectual values of Hungarian culture. Though Kornis' ideas continued to form the basis of Hungarian educational philosophy and practice, they became overlaid with strong tones of nationalism as, later on in the period, the Hungarian government displayed a more aggressive foreign policy.

In the 1920's education for democracy, in the sense of equal opportunity for all through the upgrading of elementary education in the provinces, was stressed.<sup>3</sup> It was quite evident, however, that the chief aim behind the educational reform was to bring up a better-educated generation because it would be more able to strengthen the state. More explicit nationalism appeared in educational philosophy by the 1930's. In a report provided for The Educational Yearbook, the role of the gymnasium, the elite classical secondary school of the times, is described

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<sup>2</sup>Gyula Kornis, Hungarian Education Since World War I (Budapest: 1927).

<sup>3</sup>Julius Kornis, "Education in Hungary," The Educational Yearbook (International Institute of Teachers' College, 1930), p. 313.





as a national mission with the task of fixing in the minds of students "the high historical destiny of the Hungarian people."<sup>4</sup> The sharpening of international conflicts in Central Europe and the imminence of war was reflected in the introduction of several drastic alterations in educational policy in 1937. Whereas previously academic education, that is, the training of the mind, had been considered the chief role of the secondary schools, from 1937 on the formation of character in terms of religious and national feelings was emphasized in the directives of the Ministry of Education.<sup>5</sup> In order to ensure the realization of these aims, a home-room period was introduced into the schools with the exclusive purpose of promoting the nationalistic education of the students through discussions and study of the lives of famous Hungarian historical figures. It is worthwhile to note that the Communist education system has retained this period, with modifications to correspond to Communist educational philosophy. Since by this time concern with the development of chauvinism among the youth dominated government policy, the teaching of regular school subjects was also expected to be done in a nationalistic spirit. A quotation from a publication of the Ministry of Religion and Education can best demonstrate this point:

For this purpose, every subject will be taught in the light of national values, with a continuous demonstration of the achievements of Hungarian genius in every branch of civilization. The most useful vehicle of this spirit will, of course, be the study of Hungarian history, literature and geography.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 135.

<sup>5</sup>A. Loczka, "Education in Hungary," The Educational Yearbook (International Institute of Teachers' College, 1937), p. 209.

<sup>6</sup>Loc. cit.



### Philosophy of Physical Education

While in the pre-World War I period no unified and official philosophy of physical education developed, in the era between 1918 and 1945 a definite concept was formulated by the Hungarian government regarding the role of physical education.<sup>7</sup> As has already been mentioned, due to the territorial losses suffered as a result of World War I, the Hungarian government adopted a policy which aimed, either by political pressure or force, to regain the lost areas. The prevalence of an intense nationalistic attitude among the population and the creation of a strong military force were the essential pre-conditions of the success of such a policy. Well aware of the potential of physical education to promote nationalism, on the one hand, and to develop a robust and disciplined generation, on the other hand, the government officially endorsed a comprehensive program of physical education. The severe restrictions on the size of the Hungarian army by the Treaty of Trianon<sup>8</sup> further enhanced the value of physical education as a contributor to military preparedness.

The Physical Education Law of 1921<sup>9</sup> was the embodiment of this philosophy. For the first time in Hungarian physical education history, and also in world physical education history,<sup>10</sup> the government took full

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<sup>7</sup>In the discussion of physical education philosophy--as in contemporary literature--the term physical education is used to describe both sports and formal physical education instruction.

<sup>8</sup>Bayley, et al., loc. cit.

<sup>9</sup>Kalman Ivankovits, A Collection of Laws and Ministerial Orders Regarding Physical Education (Budapest: Stadium, 1933), pp. 11-13.

<sup>10</sup>Testnevelés, 5:375, 1941.



control of physical education and made it compulsory not only for students but for all citizens under twenty-one years of age. The openly nationalistic and covertly military Levente Movement, as the physical program of youth outside school was called, will be discussed in detail later on in this chapter.

The physical education literature of the period reflects the government's concern with nationalism and military preparedness. Though the values of physical education from a non-political view are discussed repeatedly, overtones of the official philosophy regarding the role of physical education in promoting a nationalistic feeling and developing a strong generation are found in articles appearing about physical education. The moulding of character through the fostering of such personality traits as will-power, discipline, self-discipline, confidence and a desire for victory and glory is considered to be one of the major contributions of physical education to education by many authors.<sup>11</sup> However, it is also pointed out by them that the historical times in which they live call for a generation of youth possessing the qualities of indomitable will-power and iron discipline who are able to carry on the struggle aimed at recovering the lost territories of Hungary.<sup>12</sup> Similarly, the beneficial physiological effects of physical education are amply discussed in the contemporary literature.<sup>13</sup> But it is nevertheless obvious

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<sup>11</sup>Ferenc Mezey, How To Develop Mass Sport (Budapest: Hornyanszky, 1926), p. 7.

<sup>12</sup>Karoly Demeny, "Physical Education Every Day," Testneveles, 6: 520, June, 1935.

<sup>13</sup>Committee report of the Hungarian National Gymnastics Federation, 1921 (manuscript, Library of the Hungarian College of Physical Education).







that the physiological benefits are really just a means to an end, that is, they serve as a preparation of youth for military service. In this context, it is fitting to quote the statement of the MOTESZ (Hungarian National Gymnastics Federation) inspired by a visit of a MOTESZ delegation in 1933 to the Sokol Gymnastics Festival in Prague: "We also confess proudly that," like the Sokol Movement in Czechoslovakia, "the MOTESZ program in Hungary is a preparatory school for the offensive forces."<sup>14</sup>

Besides the physical education and sport programs designed for the youth of the country, international calibre competitive sport was also consciously exploited by the government to support its nationalistic policies. The boost to national pride both in Hungary proper and in the lost territories resulting in a closeness in spirit and the increase of international prestige following great sport achievements was fully recognized by the leaders of the physical education and sport programs.<sup>15</sup>

But even the values of recreational sport activities were recognized and deliberately utilized by both the companies for their private profit and by government officials to help prevent internal political unrest. It was expressed in the physical education literature of the times that the organization of sport clubs had not only contributed to higher productivity through promoting better health but to a more harmonious relationship between workers and management.<sup>16</sup> Similarly, it

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<sup>14</sup>Yearbook for 1933, Hungarian Gymnastics Federation (Budapest: Athenaeum, 1933), p. 23.

<sup>15</sup>Emil Neidenbach, "Sport and National Developments," Ifjusági Testnevelő, 19:2-4, 1927-28.

<sup>16</sup>Lajos Mariasy (ed.), Forty Years of Company Sport (Budapest: 1940), p. 18.



was stated in the literature that through involvement in sport as spectators or through participation as competitors, the various social classes come into closer contact with each other, which helps in the elimination of political tension between them.<sup>17</sup>

In order to poignantly summarize the prevalent philosophy of physical education in this period, it is best to quote from a 1938 issue of Physical Education (Testneveles): "For other nations sport may be recreation and fun, but for us Hungarians, it is a means of self-defense and national survival."<sup>18</sup>

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS

### Elementary Schools

The conditions of physical education in the elementary schools continued to be unsatisfactory during the 1920's. One of the two major causes of this condition, besides the lack of gymnasia, was the lack of elementary teachers who were also trained in the teaching of physical education. In order to remedy this situation, special courses were given in physical education to a large number of elementary classroom teachers, during the years 1927-29.<sup>19</sup> In 1928 a teacher's guide book for physical education containing teaching methods and lesson plans was

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<sup>17</sup>Ibid., p. 140.

<sup>18</sup>Ferenc Czekus, "New Foundations for Hungarian Physical Education," Testneveles, 6-7:450, 1938.

<sup>19</sup>Miklos Hodaszy (ed.), The History of Youth Physical Education at Budapest, 1890-1930 (Budapest: 1931), p. 23.



published for elementary teachers.<sup>20</sup>

In 1932 a new curriculum--superseding the one in force since 1913--was published for the elementary school.<sup>21</sup> It defined the objectives of physical education in brief phrases as the development of health, a sense of aesthetics, bodily dexterity and morality and education in the community spirit. The physical activities with which to achieve these objectives were grouped as follows:

1. Gymnastics;
2. Track and Field;
3. Military drill;
4. Excursions;
5. Winter Sports;
6. Summer Sports: swimming and bathing;
7. Games.

The curriculum prescribed the structure of the physical education lesson in three parts:

1. Introduction: warm-up period;
2. Main Part: the teaching of new skills and the practicing of old ones;
3. Conclusion: activities aimed to ensure recuperation.

The consideration of the following principles in the administration of the whole physical education program was also advocated in the instructions to the curriculum:

1. By exercising both the upper and lower body one should aim at the all-round physical development of the students;
2. In the primary grades informal methods should be used with special attention to the children's imagination. In these grades physical activity should be inspired by imaginative stories and games;

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<sup>20</sup>Janos Babocsay (ed.), Guidebook for Elementary Physical Education (Budapest: Szent Istvan Tarsulat, 1932), p. 26.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., complete text.





3. Although the atmosphere of the physical education period should be characterized by natural gaiety, undisciplined behaviour should not be tolerated.

In 1941 a new physical education curriculum was published for the elementary school which was to be in force until 1945.<sup>22</sup> This curriculum did not really represent a significant change, since the objectives of physical education were defined in similar terms to those used in the curriculum of 1935. And with the exception of air-raid defence, the appearance of which is simply a reflection of the danger of war, the physical activities in the new curriculum were identical to those listed in the previous one. A major change was an increase in the number of physical education periods in Grades I-VI from two to three per week. In Grades VII-VIII the number of physical education periods remained at two per week.

Although not in the body of the curriculum, but in separate publications, the role of physical education in developing national consciousness, patriotism and a favorable attitude toward self-sacrifice for the homeland, was repeatedly emphasized.<sup>23</sup>

Despite curricular changes and a progressive approach to the teaching of the subject, physical education continued to be plagued with the same problems as in the pre-World War I era. The acute shortage of teachers trained in the instruction of physical education and the lack of gymnasias in most elementary schools hindered the physical education

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<sup>22</sup>Ferenc Mezey, "The Significance of School Physical Education in National Education," Testnevelés, 10:855-56, 1941.

<sup>23</sup>Janos Kmetyko and Otto Misangyi, Elementary Physical Education (Országos Kozoktatási Tanács, Budapest: 1943), p. 9.



program during the whole period.<sup>24</sup> Physical education especially suffered in the rural areas, where qualified personnel were lacking and where no gymnasia existed. It was common knowledge among physical educators--as this is revealed through contemporary literature--that in most rural schools physical education was not taught at all during most parts of the school year.<sup>25</sup> Only in the larger centers and especially in the capital were there qualified teachers and facilities to ensure a sound program of physical education. A good illustration of the serious concern with physical education in Budapest is the introduction of compulsory games afternoons in all the elementary and civic schools of the capital in 1929.<sup>26</sup> Improvements in these conditions came about after World War II but even then only at a slow rate.

### Secondary Schools

The physical education curriculum for secondary schools, valid since 1899, was replaced by a new one in 1924.<sup>27</sup> This curriculum regrouped the previously included activities under new headings, adding only a few. The following is the course content of the new curriculum.

1. Exercises having specific effects.

- (a) Neck exercises.

- (b) Finger, hand, arm and shoulder exercises.

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<sup>24</sup>Janos Szabo, "Physical Education in the Elementary School," Testnevelés, 10:221-25, 1942.

<sup>25</sup>Mezey, op. cit., p. 868.      <sup>26</sup>Hodaszy, op. cit., p. 204.

<sup>27</sup>Miklos Bely, The History of Physical Education in the Secondary Schools (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1940), p. 46.



## (c) Trunk exercises.

- (1) Abdominal and chest exercises.
- (2) Back exercises.
- (3) Lateral exercises.
- (4) Combined trunk exercises:
  - Abdominal and back exercises.
  - Lateral and abdominal exercises.
  - Lateral and back exercises.
  - Lateral, abdominal and back exercises.
- (5) Trunk extending exercises.

## (d) Leg exercises.

## (e) Breathing exercises.

## II. Exercises having general effects.

## A. Individual exercises.

- (a) Lifting.
- (b) Carrying.
- (c) Throwing.
- (d) Exercises in support.
- (e) Exercises in hanging.
- (f) Walking.
- (g) Running.
- (h) Skipping.
- (i) Jumping.
- (j) Balancing.
- (k) Skating.
- (l) Sleighing.
- (m) Skiing.
- (n) Swimming.
- (o) Rowing.

## B. Group exercises.

- (a) Dancing.
- (b) Games.
- (c) Drill.
- (d) Wrestling.
- (e) Dual combat activities.
- (f) Fencing.

## III. Exercises preparing for life and work

- (a) Excursions:
- (b) Self-defense:
- (c) First aid.





IV. Verbal explanation during the presentation of the physical education lesson.

It is evident that the curriculum was organized along the principles of Swedish gymnastics with an attempt to classify all physical activities according to their effects on certain muscles. The terms gymnastics or track and field, for example, do not at all appear in the text. Because of its artificiality, the curriculum presented serious difficulties to the teachers in preparing lessons, and eventually it proved to be impractical.

Though a new physical education curriculum was not published until 1938, many changes took place in the physical education program before that year. In 1925 the games afternoon, which had not been re-introduced after the war, was made compulsory again with a view to military preparedness. By 1928 the government became so concerned with the military preparation of youth that a third physical education period per week was provided solely for the purpose of military training.<sup>28</sup> In addition, the program of the games afternoon also had to include military drills. Due to the poor economic conditions during the depression, the government discontinued the payment of physical education teachers for supervising the games afternoons, and consequently they ceased to exist from 1932 on. With this, military training in the schools received a set-back. In 1934, however, compulsory participation in the Levente Movement--a nationalistic and militaristic organization which will be discussed later--was

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<sup>28</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 146.



extended to students also. In spite of the emphasis which the government placed on military training in the period between the two World Wars, physical education classes remained generally free from militarism. Military training was conducted entirely separately from the regular physical education program.

Other developments in secondary physical education between 1918 and 1938 were the introduction of swimming lessons in addition to the physical education periods in the schools of Budapest,<sup>29</sup> an experiment with everyday physical education in six Budapest schools in 1933, and the increase in the number of regular physical education periods to four per week in Grade I (which corresponds to Grade V in North American terms) and to three per week in Grades II to VIII in 1935.<sup>30</sup>

The last physical education curriculum for secondary schools in this period appeared in 1938.<sup>31</sup> Although it contained almost the same activities as the previous one, it listed them separately for each grade level; an examination of the activities reveals an emphasis on sports beginning in the lower grades. Rowing, tennis and grass hockey were to be introduced in Grade III, ice hockey in Grade IV and water polo, boxing and wrestling in Grade V. The number of physical education periods was established at four per week in Grades I to VII and three per week for

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<sup>29</sup>"Free Swimming Instruction in the Secondary Schools of the Capital," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 32:1, 1929-30.

<sup>30</sup>"The New Weekly Number of Physical Education Periods," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 14:1, 1934-35.

<sup>31</sup>Instructions to the Physical Education Curricula of Secondary Schools (Magyar Tetnevelesi Foiskola Kiadvanyai, Budapest, 1938).



Grade VIII. There was also a two-hour compulsory sports period prescribed for Grades V to VIII. As in the elementary school, the structure of the physical education period was divided into three sections, with a warm-up, a main or teaching part, and a concluding section.

The increase of physical education periods to four per week in all but one class of the secondary school was a progressive but rather premature act. Neither the existing facilities nor the available qualified personnel were capable of handling the additional load. As a result, in the 1938-39 school year many schools held combined classes to ensure the four physical education periods per week. In other schools, the lack of sufficient facilities and physical education teachers made it impossible to raise the number of physical education periods. Realizing the objective difficulties, from 1940 on, the Ministry of Religion and Education instituted three fifty-minute physical education periods per week.<sup>32</sup>

As a conclusion to the curricular developments between the two World Wars, it should be pointed out that the Curriculum of 1938 introduced a major change in curricular structure in that it broke with the tradition of comprehensive listing of physical education activities for the whole school system. By grouping activities according to grade level, it represented the first step toward the closely structured physical education curricula which were to appear after 1945.

Besides the curricula, there were several other factors which

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<sup>32</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 52.







affected the physical education program in the schools. In 1926 ministerial directives made provisions for the instruction of fencing, competitive gymnastics and corrective gymnastics by the physical education teachers in private lessons for special remuneration if the teachers so desired. While these courses provided extra income and thereby made physical education positions more attractive to prospective teachers, they also contributed to the development of greater interest in physical education.<sup>33</sup> Another ministerial directive in 1932 was concerned with physical education uniforms. From this year on the wearing of running shoes, shorts and athletic shirts was made compulsory for all students in the secondary schools.<sup>34</sup>

One of the problems that required serious attention by the end of the period was the increase in the number of students exempt from physical education. From 5.10 per cent in 1930, the percentage of students excused from taking physical education rose to 6.02 per cent by 1938.<sup>35</sup> These figures indicate that the undue liberalism which had occurred in connection with the granting of exemptions in the pre-World War I period did not disappear at this time. In order to remedy the situation more stringent regulations were prescribed by the Ministry of Religion and Education with regard to exemptions. One of the new regulations likely to discourage applications for unwarranted exemptions required that students excused from taking physical education be present at each lesson, that they

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<sup>33</sup>Ibid., p. 120.    <sup>34</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>35</sup>Neidenbach, op. cit., p. 3.



help in the organization of team activities and even participate in the less strenuous exercises. In addition, they were also subject to examination on the theoretical aspects of all physical activities taken in classes.<sup>36</sup>

Finally, the supply and condition of facilities and equipment available for physical education should also be examined. During World War I the gymnasia of the secondary schools were taken over by the army for billeting troops or housing military hospitals. As a result, in most schools, the sport equipment was damaged or lost. So, at the end of the War practically all the gymnasia had to be supplied with new equipment. According to contemporary statistics, by the end of the 1918-1945 period, this project was successful, and it was claimed that the gymnasia of Hungarian secondary schools were among the best equipped in the world.<sup>37</sup>

The number and size of gymnasia and of playgrounds in the secondary schools were not, however, quite as favorable. Of the 179 secondary schools surveyed in 1942, data was obtained for 155.<sup>38</sup> Of these 155 schools, sixteen had no gymnasia and eleven had two. Only sixty-five schools--26 per cent of the total--possessed gymnasia which were large enough to be classified as modern for that time. The floor area of these gymnasia was at least 250 square meters. However, even at this time the government continued to build gymnasia for the state-controlled secondary schools with a dimension of ten by twenty meters, whose area only amounted to two hundred square meters. Many of the gymnasia were also used as

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<sup>36</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 158.    <sup>37</sup>Ibid., p. 178.

<sup>38</sup>Gyula Balogh, "Sport Statistics and Physical Education in the Secondary Schools," Testnevelés, 10:822-29, 1942.





auditoriums, and in many schools there were no dressing rooms.

The provisions for school yards or playground areas were even worse. Only twenty-three schools possessed yards large enough to be suitable for the playing of soccer. Forty-five schools had yards which were unsuitable for the playing of sport games and fifteen had no school yards at all. The remaining schools possessed some kind of yard, but these were only adequate for the playing of minor games.

It was a serious hinderance to the development of track and field in the secondary schools that only eight possessed track and field stadia. Even though another possessed outside facilities for track and field practice, 52 per cent of secondary schools had no opportunity to engage in track and field.

There were also a few schools which possessed other sport facilities:

<u>Facilities</u>	<u>Number of Schools</u>
Waterside recreation and boating area	6
Swimming pool	6
Skating rink	29
Tennis court	12
Basketball court	3

It is evident from these statistics how badly secondary schools were provided with outdoor facilities. Even though the situation was much better with respect to gymnasias, reports from 1942 indicate that the secondary schools found it impossible to arrange for the teaching of three physical education periods per week for each class, since the existing gymnasias could not accommodate such a rise in the number of physical education periods.<sup>39</sup> Similarly, the Levente's sport program consisting of

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<sup>39</sup>Ibid., complete text.





two hours per week for Grades II-IV and three hours per week for Grades V-VIII was hampered by lack of facilities.

### Girls' Physical Education

The girls' physical education program paralleled that of the boys' in most respects, with the combat-type activities being replaced by folk and social dancing. Another major difference was the absence of militarism either in the course of formal physical education instruction or in the form of a youth organization. During the 1920 to 1945 period the prejudice that had existed towards girls' physical education disappeared from the public mind, and girls began to participate in increasing numbers in the sport competitions organized for secondary school students.<sup>40</sup>

### Evaluation

Despite the deficiencies in facilities, the physical education program in the secondary schools was of good quality in this period. Though the content grouping of the Curriculum of 1924 was awkward, the Curriculum included a wide variety of activities and sports which were further expanded in range in the Curriculum of 1938. In an increased number of physical education periods these curricula were then put into effect the first time in Hungarian physical education history by well-qualified teachers, graduates of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education, who began to enter teaching in the late 1920's. Consequently, even though the status of physical education in the schools officially remained below

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<sup>40</sup>National Federation of Secondary School Sport Clubs, Yearbook (Budapest: Elet, 1927), p. 27.



that of academic subjects, its social prestige reached unprecedented heights by the end of the period.

### Sport in the Secondary Schools

The ministerial decree of 1913, prescribing the compulsory formation of sport clubs in each secondary school, did not become a reality because of the outbreak of World War I. Therefore, after the War the problem of secondary school sport clubs had to be solved, before a dynamic sports life could flourish in the secondary schools. In the absence of ministerial action regarding school sport clubs, a spontaneous development took place under the leadership of Dr. Jeno Pinter, the superintendent of schools for Budapest. He inspired the organization of the Athletic Club of the Secondary Schools of Budapest (Budapesti Középiskolai Atlétikai Club, BKAC) in 1921.<sup>41</sup>

The BKAC immediately began to hold competitions in soccer, gymnastics, fencing, swimming, boxing and track and field. The sports program of the BKAC was so successful that physical educators advocated the creation of a similar sport organization for the whole country. The idea received full support from the Ministry of Religion and Education, and in 1924 a national sport federation for the sport clubs of secondary schools was proclaimed simultaneously with the compulsory formation of sport clubs in every secondary school.<sup>42</sup>

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<sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 14.

<sup>42</sup>Ferenc Mezey, "The Organization and Function of KISOSZ," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: 1925), pp. 352-57.



The National Federation of Secondary School Sport Clubs (Közepfokú Iskolák Sportköröknek Országos Szövetsége, KISOSZ) was directed by a commissioner from the Ministry of Religion and Education and it was composed of a large number of committees being individually responsible for finances, discipline, rules, competitions and administration of various sports. The country was divided into six districts with local subcommittees carrying on the work according to the directives of the central administration. Organization began promptly, and by 1925, out of 467 secondary schools, 280 formed its sport club. The total of registered KISOSZ members at this time was already 85,000.

The local sport clubs were mostly supported from the school physical education fund, which was set up by the Ministry of Education in 1925.<sup>43</sup> The Ministry made it compulsory for each student in all types of secondary schools to pay a monthly fee into the school physical education fund: 10 per cent of the fund was slated for the KISOSZ, 10 per cent for the local Boy Scouts, 40 per cent for the expenses of the sport club and 40 per cent for the reimbursement of the physical education teacher of the school, who was in charge of the local sport club. In girls' schools the same pattern prevailed with only minor changes in the percentages of distribution. Other sources of revenue for the clubs were special fees from club members, donations and the income from competitions and displays.<sup>44</sup>

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<sup>43</sup>Bela Tihanyi (ed.), Regulations Regarding the Operation of KISOK (Budapest: Szerzo, 1937), p. 76.

<sup>44</sup>Ibid., p. 69.







Competition was organized by the KISOSZ, the name of which was changed in 1924 to the National Center of Secondary School Sport Clubs (Közepfokú Iskolák Sportkörökének Országos Központja, KISOK), at the club, town, district and national levels. In order to involve even the junior grades of the secondary schools and to ensure a fair contest, competitors were divided into the following age groups: 10-12 years, 12-14 years, 14-16 years, 16-18 years and 18-20 years old.<sup>45</sup> Soon after its inception, the KISOSZ began to organize national championships in several sports. By 1925 it held national championships in track and field, swimming, soccer, gymnastics, fencing and boxing. Next year the number of sports in which district and national championships were organized rose to twelve,<sup>46</sup> and by 1937 to fourteen.<sup>47</sup> In order to illustrate the degree of student involvement, it is sufficient to quote some figures from the early years of KISOSZ operation.<sup>48</sup> In the 1924-25 school year, for instance, seventy-eight competitions were held in track and field with 10,450 participants. Or, in fencing and wrestling, two relatively unpopular sports, thirty-five competitions with 1,100 participants and twenty-two competitions with 551 participants respectively, were held in 1925. The participation figures continued to increase in subsequent years.

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<sup>45</sup> Ibid., p. 24.

<sup>46</sup> Mezey, KISOSZ, op. cit., p. 36.

<sup>47</sup> Emil Neidenbach, "New Directions for Hungarian Physical Education," Ijúsági Testnevelés, 16-17:1-2, 1937-38.

<sup>48</sup> Mezey, KISOSZ, op. cit., pp. 353-57.



By the late 1930's the KISOK, as it was called by then, reached a high stage of development and operated a complex program. Two remarkable features of its operation, fully developed by this time, were the subdivisions in charge of individual sports<sup>49</sup> and the special clinics set up for the training of promising young athletes.<sup>50</sup> The leaders of the subdivisions were responsible for advising the district subcommittees, for organizing national championships and for directing the clinics in their sport. In 1937 the following subdivisions were operating:

- (a) Boys:      Track and field  
                  Target shooting (archery)  
                  Rowing  
                  Grass hockey  
                  Ice hockey  
                  Skating (figure and speed)  
                  Handball  
                  Basketball  
                  Soccer  
                  Skiing  
                  Tennis  
                  Gymnastics  
                  Swimming (water polo and diving)  
                  Fencing
- (b) Girls:     Track and field  
                  Skating  
                  Skiing  
                  Handball  
                  Outdoor games  
                  Tennis  
                  Gymnastics  
                  Swimming  
                  Fencing.

The setting-up of permanent clinics was partially prompted by the lack of facilities and by the desire to provide a more intensive training opportunity for talented athletes. Some clinics took the form of training

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<sup>49</sup>Tihanyi, op. cit., pp. 12-22.      <sup>50</sup>Ibid., pp. 27-36.



camps held at Budapest during the summer, Christmas or Easter holidays, mostly for students in the provinces. Others operated all year round or seasonally and these were designed for students living in Budapest district or in Budapest itself. In order to qualify for and to remain in these clinics students had to reach and maintain a high standard of sport performance and disciplined behavior. In 1937 there were clinics opening in track and field, rowing, swimming, tennis, figure and speed skating, fencing, dry skiing and ice hockey.

There were several other factors which contributed to the success of the KISOK's sports program. The offering of a large number of prizes and perpetual trophies for championships in most sports inspired not only mass but quality performances.<sup>51</sup> The careful planning which secured sufficient athletic facilities for both practice and competition for the members of secondary school sport clubs had a similar effect on participation and athletic achievement.<sup>52</sup> The largest outdoor sport establishment in Hungary containing three regulation size soccer fields and the widest running track (eight lanes), was obtained for the sole use of KISOK athletes. The appearance of a youth sport organ, Physical Educational for Youth (Ifjusagi Testneveles),<sup>53</sup> and the coverage afforded to school sports by the Sport Journal (Sport Hirlap) and the National Sport (Nemzeti Sport) all helped to raise the popularity of athletics among secondary school students.<sup>54</sup> Last but not least, the promotion of

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<sup>51</sup>Ibid., pp. 59-62.      <sup>52</sup>Ibid., pp. 54-55.

<sup>53</sup>"Ten Years in the Service of Independent School Sport," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 12:1-2, 1931-32.

<sup>54</sup>Bely, op. cit., p. 114.





international contests at the secondary school level helped to raise the prestige of sports not only among the students but among the adult population as well. In 1936, for example, swimmers and a water polo team from Budapest made a tour of five Scandinavian countries,<sup>55</sup> and in 1938 an international swimming meet was held between the national teams of Austria and Hungary.<sup>56</sup>

The aims of the KISOK, as defined in the organizational directive, were to involve the large masses of secondary school students in sports, to provide opportunities for engagement in those sports which could not be taught in regular physical education classes, and to encourage the development of potential young athletes.<sup>57</sup> Of these aims, the first one, the encouragement of mass participation, received the most emphasis in the initial years. Provisions, such as the compulsory formation of sport clubs, the age group divisions and the large number of competitions, all served this purpose. This emphasis on mass participation in order to create a wide basis for Hungarian sport is reflected in the physical education literature as late as 1936.<sup>58</sup> In the late 1930's, however, after a good basis had been built up, attention was focused more and more on the qualitative aspect of the KISOK program. And by this time, the third aim of the KISOK, the development of promising athletes, received more

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<sup>55</sup>Andor Boka, "Twenty Years in the Service of Independent School Sport," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 15-16:5-10, 1935-36.

<sup>56</sup>Report in Ifjusagi Testneveles, 25:1, 1938.

<sup>57</sup>Tihanyi, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>58</sup>Andor Boka, "Emil Neidenback's statement About the Present and Future of Hungarian Secondary School Sport," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 14-15: 1-3, 1936-37.



emphasis. The view that the role of the school sport club is to discover and train outstanding young athletes in order to ensure a reserve supply of athletes for the amateur sport clubs, was expressed in the physical education literature.<sup>59</sup> The appearance of this philosophy is a reflection of the serious concern with quality performance in athletics which was emerging at this time in Hungary.

The regularity and the frequency of competitions held in any one year<sup>60</sup> suggest that the KISOK was successful in promoting both mass participation and quality performance among secondary school students. The success of the KISOK is further supported by the fact that after many years of experimentation with sport organization for the secondary schools, the Communist educational authorities have in recent years introduced a system involving national championships which is very similar to the old KISOK program.<sup>61</sup>

### Physical Education in the Colleges

Though suggestions had been made by physical educators, representatives of college sport clubs and the National Physical Education Council in the pre-World War I period about the introduction of compulsory physical

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<sup>59</sup>Jozsef Kucharik, "The Sport Club," Testneveles, 7:511, 1943.

<sup>60</sup>"District and National Competitions Organized by the KISOK in 1934-35," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1936), pp. 289-95.

<sup>61</sup>Lajos Endrody (ed.), The Yearbook of Hungarian Sport (Budapest: Sport, 1965).



education in colleges, no formal physical education programs were set up in the colleges until the middle 1920's. The first legal provisions for the introduction of physical education were made in the Physical Education Law of 1921, which compelled the colleges to provide facilities and personnel for students who desired to engage in physical activities.<sup>62</sup> But since the government did not think it wise to encroach on the autonomy of the colleges and universities, it did not order inauguration of compulsory physical education classes. Consequently, all that the provisions of the Physical Education Law of 1921 did was to help the sport program of the colleges by ensuring the availability of facilities and coaches.

The determined efforts of the National Physical Education Council and of individual physical educators, and probably governmental pressure as well, finally resulted in the introduction of a compulsory physical education program by the colleges themselves. The example of the University of Szeged in 1925<sup>63</sup> was soon followed by others, and by 1928 all the colleges and universities made formal physical education classes compulsory for all students.<sup>64</sup> Due to the autonomy of the colleges, the actual arrangements varied from place to place. It was, however, a general rule that participation in the program was compulsory only for students

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<sup>62</sup>Ivankovits, op. cit., p. 11.

<sup>63</sup>"Compulsory Physical Education at the Universities," Ifjusagi Testneveles, 11:1-2, 1926-27.

<sup>64</sup>Ervin Szerelemhegyi, The Encyclopedia of Sport (Budapest: 1928), p. 309.





under twenty or twenty-two years of age.<sup>65</sup> Similarly, most colleges secured the financial funds for the program by collecting a special fee from each student.<sup>66</sup> The curricular content of the programs also varied. A common feature was, however, to repeat during the first and second year the activities taken in the secondary school and emphasize sports, the rules of sports and the organization of competitions in the third and fourth year.<sup>67</sup> Though the lack of such facilities as track and field stadia and gymnasias, especially in the smaller and newer colleges, hindered the efficient functioning of the compulsory physical education program, on the whole it was proceeding very well by the 1930's.<sup>68</sup> And by providing a basis for participation and training, compulsory physical education undoubtedly played an essential role in the development of the high quality sport program of the colleges in this period.

### Sport in the Colleges

With the formation of the National College Sport Federation in 1907, college sport had already been well-established before World War I. After the War, the National Federation continued to coordinate and extend the sport program of the colleges. The absence of state involvement is one of the most notable features of college sport of this era. From its

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<sup>65</sup> Regulations Regarding the Compulsory Physical Education Program The Royal Peter Pazmany University of Budapest (Budapest: Egyetemi Nyomda, 1927), pp. 1-8.

<sup>66</sup> "Compulsory Physical Education at the Universities," loc. cit.

<sup>67</sup> Dezso Syko, "Physical Education Curricula at the Universities," Testneveles, 4:358, 1936.

<sup>68</sup> Jeno Garam, "Facilities of Colleges and Universities," Testneveles, 5-6:463-64, 1936.



inception in the late 1800's to 1945, college sport was organized and directed voluntarily and independently by students or physical educators in the colleges. This independence was challenged repeatedly between the two World Wars by the government, which in this era, for political reasons took a great interest in sport and physical education. In 1929 the question of supreme authority over college sport between government and the National College Sport Federation resulted in the dissolution of the Federation by the order of the government.<sup>69</sup> Next year, in order not to precipitate a politically undesirable regression in the already flourishing college sport, the government compromised and allowed the reorganization of the Federation under the new name of the National College Sport Association. This organ continued to direct college sport independently until the outbreak of World War II.<sup>70</sup>

Due to the efforts of the National Federation, an exceptionally active college sport developed in Hungary. National championships were held each year and international competitions were encouraged. In 1931, for example, national championships were organized in track and field, skating, soccer, target-shooting, gymnastics, swimming and fencing.<sup>71</sup> By 1934, national championships were staged in wrestling, rowing, handball, basketball, boxing, skiing, tennis, water polo and fencing as well.<sup>72</sup>

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<sup>69</sup>Jeno Garam, Twenty-Eight Years from the History of College Sport (manuscript, 1935, in collection of Jeno Garam, ex-secretary of the National College Sport Federation).

<sup>70</sup>Ibid., p. 53.

<sup>71</sup>"College Champions in 1930-31," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1935), pp. 194-95.

<sup>72</sup>"College Champions in 1933-34," Magyar Sport, op. cit.



Hungarian college athletes were becoming increasingly successful in international competitions in this period.

In point competition at the World Students' Games, Hungarian athletes gained first places in track and field at Rome in 1927, in swimming at Paris in 1928,<sup>73</sup> in swimming and water polo at Torino in 1933.<sup>74</sup> Hungarian college athletes achieved their most outstanding successes in international competitions at the VI World Students' Games held in Budapest in 1935 with thirty nations and 651 men and 123 women participants.<sup>75</sup> On this occasion, the Hungarian team won the trophy for best overall performance in rowing, soccer, men's and women's gymnastics, swimming, fencing and water polo. And Hungary came first, ahead of Germany, its greatest rival, in the unofficial rankings of nations.

The high calibre of Hungarian college sport is evident from these results. As members of the national teams in many sports, college athletes represented a major force in Hungarian sport life and achievement. It is an indication of the prestige of the National College Sport Association as an organizing body that, although under the direction of the central sports governing body, after 1945 college sport was allowed by the Communist regime to retain basically the same structure which had been instituted by the NCSA.

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<sup>73</sup>Garam, History of College Sport, loc. cit.

<sup>74</sup>"World Students' Games, 1933, Torino," Magyar Sport Almanach, op. cit., pp. 198-200.

<sup>75</sup>"World Students' Games, 1935, Budapest," Magyar Sport Almanach, op. cit., pp. 271-285.







### Physical Education Teacher Training

During World War I the training of male physical education teachers was discontinued. It was started again by the National Gymnastic Union in 1919. During the four and one-half month long Communist Republic in 1919 plans were made to establish a college of physical education on the pattern which had been suggested by several prominent physical educators and various organized bodies related to physical education before the War.<sup>76</sup> But the regime fell before it had time to carry out its plans.

In 1920 the physical education teacher training course of the National Gymnastic Union was taken over by the state.<sup>77</sup> The new institution was called the Hungarian Royal Normal School For Gymnastic Teachers. The course of studies remained generally the same as before. Only track and field and rhythmical gymnastics for women were added to the program<sup>78</sup> and the length of training was extended to ten months.<sup>79</sup> Until 1925, apart from the State Normal School of Budapest, this institution was in charge of secondary physical education teacher training.

As has already been pointed out, even before the War there had been attempts made to establish a college of physical education in Hungary. These attempts were continued after the War and, as a result, in the Physical Education Law of 1921, a comprehensive body of regulations

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<sup>76</sup>Miklos Bely, The History of Physical Education, Vol. II (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1964), p. 237.

<sup>77</sup>Ferenc Bohn, "The History of the Hungarian College of Physical Education," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1925, op. cit., p. 334.

<sup>78</sup>Ibid., p. 346. <sup>79</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 230.



affecting all aspects of physical education in the country, provisions were made for the setting up of a college of physical education. The Physical Education Law of 1921 declared that a college of physical education was to be organized as soon as the financial affairs of the state permitted.<sup>80</sup> It was, however, not until 1925 that the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education, offering a three-year course at the university level, was opened in Budapest.

According to the organizational directive drawn up by the Ministry of Religion and Education, the tasks of the new Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education were to train physical education teachers for the secondary schools, to develop research in physical education and to conduct the in-service training of practicing physical education teachers.<sup>81</sup> In order to ensure the development of research, laboratories were set up at the College to study special fields in physical education. These included an anthropometric, a physiological, an X-ray and a psychological laboratory. In addition a library was also established.

Admission requirements to the College consisted of a secondary or normal school diploma, good physical health, age below thirty and the passing of a theoretical and practical entrance examination. In its first year of operation the College admitted forty-eight men and forty-four women students.<sup>82</sup> Of these, eight men and sixteen women were also

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<sup>80</sup>Ivankovits, op. cit., p. 12.      <sup>81</sup>Bohn, op. cit., p. 348.

<sup>82</sup>Imre Szukovathy, "The Operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education," Magyar Sport Almanach (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1926), p. 188.



enrolled in a university arts program, while one man and one women were taking medicine as well as physical education.

At this time, by granting them exemption from certain subjects, provisions were made for students in the arts and in medicine to enter the College and carry on with their university work concurrently. While in the first few years there were a number of such students enrolled at the College, later on, with the increase of work load in the College of Physical Education, this joint program was no longer feasible.

After some initial variation during the first two years of operation, by 1920 the following program and timetable were developed at the College.

The Time Schedule of the Three-Year Program at the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education According to Weeks and Semesters<sup>83</sup>

Semesters	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	Total
Anatomy	2	2	-	-	-	-	4
Physiology	-	-	2	2	-	-	4
Bodily development	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Anthropometrics	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
Hygiene and first aid	-	-	2	2	-	-	4
Dynamics	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
Theory of physical education	1	1	1	1	-	-	4
Swedish and German gymnastics	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
Theory and practice							
Medical gymnastics and massage	-	-	-	-	2	2	4
Track and field	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
Theory and practice							
School games and sports	3	3	3	4.5	-	-	13.5
History of physical education	-	-	-	-	2	2	4
Organization of physical education	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Ethics	-	2	-	-	-	-	2
Cultural history, Hungarian	2	2	-	-	-	-	4
Fencing	2	2	1	1	-	-	6

<sup>83</sup>Denes Janossy, "Education in Hungary," The Educational Yearbook (Institute of Teachers' College, 1927), p. 205.







Semesters	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	Total
Shooting at butts (men)	-	-	-	-	2	2	4
Dancing (women)	2	2	-	-	1	1	6
Boy scouts, girl scouts	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
Swimming, theory and practice	1	1	1	1	-	-	4
Teaching in sport associations	-	-	-	2	2	-	4
Seminar work in physical ed.	-	-	2	2	2	2	8
German	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
English (optional)	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Singing	-	-	-	-	1.5	-	1.5
Practice teaching	-	-	2	2	4	4	12
Total	32	32	30	33.5	33.5	29	189

Season sports:<sup>84</sup> Students were further required to participate in a three week sports course twice a year.

Winter - Men only: wrestling, boxing, skiing, ice sports

Summer- Both sexes: swimming, hiking

Men only : rowing, scouts

Women only: tennis, grass hockey

As can be seen from the program, the three-year course was divided into six semesters. These semesters were fifteen weeks long and at the end of each, examinations were held in the subjects given in that particular semester. The whole of the program, if compared to that which had been offered by the Hungarian Royal Normal School for Gymnastic Teachers or to that of its predecessor, the National Gymnastic Union, represents a significant development in the training of physical education teachers in Hungary. The extension of the teacher training period to three years made possible not only the inclusion of more courses in pedagogy, but the increase of both theoretical and practical physical education work and the addition of some courses, such as cultural history and a foreign language, which could contribute considerably to the students' general

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<sup>84</sup> Szukovathy, op. cit., p. 190.



knowledge.

An examination of the purely physical education courses in terms of time allotments reveals that although gymnastics is of primary importance, it shares the leading position with track and field, which for over half a century was not even in the physical education teacher training program. But an important concern with games and a wide variety of sports is also evident from the timetable. On the whole, the new program represents a radical break-away from the gymnastics-oriented teacher training of the pre-World War years and is characterized by considerable diversity.

The new Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education proved to be such a success that in 1929, with government approval, the program of the College was extended to four years. This revised and extended program follows, page 139.

A comparison of this and the 1927 timetable reveals that while in the new program more time was devoted to subjects already included in the curriculum, a number of new subjects were also added to the program. The total time assigned to courses in education, physiology and health and all the activities, was increased. Especially significant were the increases in the time allotment for games and sports. Boxing and wrestling, for example, were included in the curriculum as regular courses for two semesters and various seasonal sports also became compulsory for four semesters. The appearance of national dances, target-shooting and Levente-training among the courses indicated the influence of the extremely nationalistic spirit which appeared in Hungary as a result of the



The Program and Timetable of the Royal Hungarian College of  
Physical Education<sup>85</sup>

Course	Semester															
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI		VII		VIII	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Psychology and Child-study	2	2	2	2												
Ethics			2	2												
Logic					2	2										
Pedagogy and Methodics					4	4	4	4								
History of Phys. Ed.													2	2	2	2
Organization of Phys. Ed.													2	2		
Practice Teaching					2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
Anatomy	2	2	2	2												
Anthropology	2	2	2	2												
Biology					3	3	3	3								
Hygiene									2	2	2	2	2	2		
Kinetics							2	2								
Gymnast, Theory & Prac.	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Rhythm Gym.									2		2		2		2	
Orthop. practice													2	2	3	3
Orthop. practice teaching															2	2
Athletics, theory & prac.	4		4		4		4		4		4		4		4	
Open air exercises		4		4		4		4		4		4		4		4
Season sports <sup>a</sup>					2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2				
Games, Theory & Prac.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2								
Field games	1		1		2		2		2		2		1		1	
Swimming	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Fencing, theory & prac.	2		2		2		2		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	
Target shooting, theo.&prac.									2		2		2		2	
Boxing									2		2					
Wrestling	2		2													
National dances		2		2	2	2		2								
Scouting, theory of	2															
Hiking and maps	2	2	2	2												
Levente-training							2	2		2		2		2		2
History of culture	2	2	2	2												
Private study (Seminary)									2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Choir-practice	2	2														
Total	20	25	28	25	30	26	30	26	28	22	28	22	30	25	29	24

The students are further required to study at least one modern language (English or German at present) in two lessons a week and to make an exam.

<sup>a</sup>Season sports--For men--skiing, skating, rowing, self-defense.  
For women--skiing, skating, hockey, tennis.

<sup>85</sup>S. C. Staley, "Hungary Develops a New Program of Physical Education," The Journal of Health and Physical Education, 1931, p. 11.





territorial losses suffered in World War I. Aside from the relatively light emphasis on militarism as expressed through the inclusion of target shooting and Levente-training in the curriculum, the new program of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education was mainly concerned with the thorough and versatile training of physical education teachers. This emphasis on thoroughness and versatility is evident from the summary and timetable of the College's program instituted in 1929. With some minor changes, this program and the overall purpose of the College remained the same until the end of the Second World War.

One of these changes was the addition of some new elements to the original tasks of the College as defined by the Minister of Religion and Education in 1925. In the new organizational directive of 1933, the training of physical educators for colleges and university teaching, the training of sport leaders and coaches, the development of closer cooperation between physical education and medicine, the direction of a new sport medicine center and the organization of orientation courses for physicians intending to specialize in sport medicine were added to the original responsibilities of the college.<sup>86</sup> That this new directive was put into effect can be seen from the annual report on the work of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education for the year 1935.<sup>87</sup> For example, it is mentioned therein that in this year students were required to participate in judges' courses given in the major sports. Similarly, it is also stated

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<sup>86</sup>Ivankovits, op. cit., p.64.

<sup>87</sup>"The Operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., pp. 305-15.



that there were short courses given for tennis, wrestling, and boxing coaches and a course for sport physicians. While it is not within the scope of this study to describe in detail the operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education, it seems proper to refer to some of its characteristic features.<sup>88</sup> The seminars, also called private study periods, of which there were two per week in the third and fourth years, were aimed at getting the students interested in new developments in physical education through the reading of journals and other publications, at developing in the students the skill to participate in discussions and at involving them in research. The 5,000 volume library of the College, containing mostly works on physical education, was well able to satisfy the demand for individual study. In order to further increase the students' interests in research and in publishing articles, an annual essay and research paper contest was held every year, and to generally help the cause of physical education a conference of all professors, graduates and undergraduates was convened annually at the College to discuss current problems in physical education.

In order to promote interest in sports and physical education the sports and gymnastics teams of the College regularly participated in displays organized throughout the country.<sup>89</sup> However, competition at both the intramural and intercollegiate level was even a more important aspect of the work of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education. In the

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<sup>88</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>89</sup>Ferenc Bohn, The History of Physical Education (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1940), p. 308.



national intercollegiate championships, students and teams of the College achieved fame by winning many events.<sup>90</sup> But the teams of the College also competed in championships organized by the various sport associations. Their results in these competitions were quite outstanding. In 1935, for example, the national basketball championship was won by the team of the College.<sup>91</sup>

This brief discussion of the operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education reveals that by training physical education teachers, sport leaders and coaches and by participating in research and competition, the College provided an inspiring leadership in the fields of sports and physical education in Hungary during the 1925-45 period.

In addition to gaining recognition at home, the College also became widely known abroad for the high quality of its program. In a study of Hungarian physical education made in 1930, Professor Staley of the University of Illinois rated the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education as second best among the twenty similar institutions he visited in twelve countries.<sup>92</sup> It is also an indication of the fame of the College at this period that numerous foreign students entered it every year.<sup>93</sup> They came from the United States, Greece, Cyprus, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. There were especially many Bulgarian students in the College; the number of Bulgarian graduates up to 1941 was twenty-one.

However, besides the formal program carried on at the College, the

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<sup>90</sup>"The Operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education," op. cit., p. 311.

<sup>91</sup>Loc. cit.      <sup>92</sup>Staley, op. cit., p. 51.      <sup>93</sup>Ibid., p. 8.







frequent visits made to various European countries by the display teams of the College also contributed to its fame. Longer tours and single displays followed each other. In 1935 a tour of Bulgaria was made.<sup>94</sup> In 1937, a display in Vienna was held.<sup>95</sup> Then a tour of Sweden and a display at Vienna during the World College Championships followed in the course of 1939.<sup>96</sup> One of the proudest moments in the history of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education and also a sign of the high reputation which the College gained abroad was the awarding of the Olympic Cup to the College by the International Olympic Committee for the year 1938.<sup>97</sup>

#### Status of Physical Education Teachers Between 1914-1945

Although the training and social position of physical education teachers improved unprecedentedly during this period, their legal and financial status within the school remained below that of the teachers of other subjects. The first significant step toward equality was achieved when in 1933 the Ministry of Education ranked graduates of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education together with graduates of any four-year college program for salary purposes.<sup>98</sup> This, however, still did not mean financial equality, and even in 1940 physical education teachers were given an inferior pay. Their starting salary was 158 pengos per month in their first year of teaching, while teachers of other subjects received 182 pengos per month in their first year of teaching.<sup>99</sup> Only after seven years of

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<sup>94</sup>"The Operation of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education," op. cit., p. 309.

<sup>95</sup>Bohn, Physical Education, op. cit., p. 366. <sup>96</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>97</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit., p. 366. <sup>98</sup>Ibid., p. 235.

<sup>99</sup>Ibid., p. 238.



experience did physical education teachers reach this amount.

It is not surprising that physical educators expressed dissatisfaction with their situation. In 1937, for example, a provincial conference of physical education teachers voiced the complaint that the work of physical education teachers was often underrated in the schools and that teachers were kept on probation for years and appointments to the permanent staff were very rare.<sup>100</sup>

By 1940, the failure of the Ministry of Education to ensure complete equality for physical education teachers resulted in a decrease in the number of applicants intending to enter the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education.<sup>101</sup> Discrimination in connection with the compulsory years of service before retirement was also apparent at this time. While teachers of academic subjects were required to teach for thirty-five years before being eligible for pension, physical education teachers had to teach forty years to qualify for the pension.

The position of physical education teachers at the colleges and universities was similarly deplorable. Salaries were even lower than in the secondary schools and most teaching appointments were made on a temporary basis for ten months at a time.<sup>102</sup>

It is interesting to note that whereas physical education teachers

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<sup>100</sup>K. Szabo, "Current Problems of Physical Education Teachers," Testnevelo Tanarok Kozlemenye, 7:8-11, 1937.

<sup>101</sup>L. Rajcsanyi, "The Position of Physical Educators," Kepes Sport, 41:9, 1940.

<sup>102</sup>M. Gedenyi, "The Position of Physical Educators in the Colleges," Testneveles, 5-6:470, 1936.



in general gained in popularity and in reputation by the end of the period--this is indicated by the complimentary speech made in parliament on physical education by Homan, the Minister of Education--<sup>103</sup> their salary and status did not sufficiently reflect this improvement. Physical education teachers were to achieve complete equality within the schools only after 1945.

Physical Education Teacher Training for Kindergarten and Elementary School Teachers Between 1918 and 1945

By the beginning of this period extensive provisions were made by the Ministry of Education for the training of kindergarten teachers in the field of physical education. The curriculum of the kindergarten training schools prescribed four periods of physical education per week in each of the two years of training. Resident students--and most of them belonged to this group--were required to participate in physical activities for one hour every day. In the summer these activities were to be various ball games and swimming and in the winter, skating.<sup>104</sup> The nature of the physical education activities to be taught in the kindergarten classes was characterized by variety and by an emphasis on imitative and low organization games. It was a curriculum which appealed to the play instinct of children.

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<sup>103</sup>Bely, Secondary Schools, op. cit. p. 244.

<sup>104</sup>Gy. Dollinger, "The Present Conditions of School Physical Education," The Surveys of the National Physical Education Council (Budapest, 1919), p. 28.







According to a critical evaluation by the National Physical Education Council, the physical education program introduced at the normal schools in 1919 was the only one at secondary institutions in Hungary which embodied the most progressive contemporary ideas in physical education.<sup>105</sup> The activities were comprised of German and Swedish gymnastics, track and field, games, swimming, skating and hiking. There were two periods of regular physical education classes per week and in the afternoon, once a week, two hours were spent on games only.

Although the above discussion suggests that all elementary school teachers received a good training in physical education, complaints from later years indicate that this was not always the case. It appears that there was a wide gulf between theory and practice in the teaching of physical education at the normal schools and the well-planned curriculum was not always put into effect. A physical education teacher at the Normal School of Debrecen, the best in the country, laments in 1930 that physical education teaching in the elementary schools is generally poor.<sup>106</sup> He claims that most elementary school teachers allow the students to play in the school yard during physical education periods with the result that those who need the exercise most watch their more active class mates. He blames this condition on the poor quality of physical education instruction at the normal schools. He describes the physical education program at the Normal School of Debrecen and suggests its introduction at all other normal schools in Hungary. Before discussing the

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<sup>105</sup> Ibid., p. 30.

<sup>106</sup> L. Somorjai, "Physical Education in the Normal Schools," Testneveles, 4:341, 1941.



program at the Normal School of Debrecen, it is necessary to mention that the length of general training at the normal schools at this time was five years, following eight years of schooling, one year longer than the secondary matriculation program.

Since 1922 the number of physical education periods was two hours per week at the Normal School of Debrecen. In addition, however, two hours were set aside for games in the afternoons and two hours for sport club activities in the evenings. During the first three years the aim of the physical education instruction at the Normal School of Debrecen was to involve all pupils in sports. In the winter skating, skiing, sleighing and in the summer, rowing and swimming were included in the physical education periods. In the sport clubs and during the games period, each student was allowed to participate in his favorite sport. In the fourth and fifth years students learned to execute and to teach the activities taught in the six grades of the elementary schools. In these years, there were both theoretical and practical examinations in physical education.

However, it is important to note that complaints recurring as late as the 1940's expressed the opinion that the unsatisfactory state of physical education in the elementary schools was due to lack of proper training in the normal schools.<sup>107,108</sup> This indicates that the excellent sample of the Normal School of Debrecen was not followed by most of the normal schools in Hungary.

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<sup>107</sup> Mezey, "The Significance of School Physical Education in National Education," op. cit., p. 568.

<sup>108</sup> Szabo, "Physical Education in the Elementary School," op. cit., p. 223.



## SPORT IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1918 AND 1945

Central Sport Governing Body

The National Physical Education Council, established shortly before World War I and abolished during the short-lived Communist Republic in 1919, was revised by the Hungarian government in 1921. Whereas prior to the War the role of the Council was solely advisory, The Physical Education Law of 1921 empowered the Council to act as a supervisory and executive organ of the government.<sup>109</sup> When in 1924 the National Physical Education Fund was re-established, its administration was entrusted to the Council.<sup>110</sup> By 1925, when the administration of a special physical education tax fund and the supervision of all the sport federations were also delegated to the Council, it developed into the highest authority over sports and physical education in Hungary, subject only to the Ministry of Religion and Education.

The National Physical Education Council was directed by a president appointed for five years by the head of state. He had a group of executive officers and forty council members who were selected from all agencies and official bodies concerned with sport and physical education to ensure a democratic representation. The Council was divided into the following five committees, each being responsible for an aspect of sport and physical education:

- I. School physical education;
- II. Sport clubs and federations;
- III. Physical education of youth not in attendance at school  
(the Levente movement which will be discussed later);

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<sup>109</sup>Ivankovits, op. cit., p. 11.      <sup>110</sup>Ibid., p. 54.







- IV. Olympic games and international connections;
- V. College sport and physical education.

The founding of the Central House of Hungarian Physical Education in 1930 considerably aided the work of the National Physical Education Council and of the individual federations and the development of sports in general.<sup>111</sup> In this center, located at Budapest, beside the offices of all the sport federations and of the National Physical Education Council, there were suitable gymnasia for boxing, wrestling, fencing and gymnastics. These gymnasia were used for the training of national Olympic teams in the above sports.

#### Sport Finance

The government's serious concern with sport and physical education in this period is indicated by the financial arrangements it provided for their support. In 1924, in a modified form, the government re-introduced the taxing of horse racing bets, which was discontinued after World War I. Eight per cent of the total bets and two per cent of taxes paid by bookmakers was placed in the National Physical Education Fund administered by the National Physical Education Council.<sup>112</sup> Next year a tax on the gate receipts of sport events was introduced to ensure more funds for sports and physical education. According to a graduated scale related to size of income, from two per cent to twenty per cent of the gate receipts had to be paid into the National Physical Education Fund.<sup>113</sup>

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<sup>111</sup>Kalman Ivankovits, The Development and Organization of Hungarian Physical Education (Budapest: Kiralyi Magyar Egyetemi Nyomda, 1936), p. 34.

<sup>112</sup>Ivankovits, A Collection of Laws, op. cit., p. 54. <sup>113</sup>Ibid. p. 55.



To pay at least for part of the expenses of the county and the local village or city level, two additional physical education funds were established.<sup>114</sup> The County Physical Education Fund received its income from these sources:

1. the county budget;
2. gifts, legacies and foundations;
3. the gifts of the National Physical Education Fund in the form of sports equipment or price discounts.

The village or city physical education funds which will be discussed with the Levente movement served mostly to support the local Levente program.

#### NATIONALISTIC AND MILITARISTIC SPORT MOVEMENTS

##### The Levente Movement

The Treaty of Trianon reduced the Hungarian army to 35,000 long-term volunteers, while there were no restrictions placed on the size of the armed forces of Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Romania.<sup>115</sup> With this army there was no hope of ever recovering the lost territories. It was for this reason that the government introduced a compulsory sport and physical education movement with which to ensure not only the physical fitness of youth but its military preparedness as well. It was called the "Levente Movement"; the name "Levente" referred to a heroic young Hungarian prince of the Middle Ages.<sup>116</sup>

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<sup>114</sup> Ibid., pp. 42-44.      <sup>115</sup> Bayley, et al., loc. cit.

<sup>116</sup> The word "levente" also means a young warrior and so members of the Levente Clubs were also called leventes individually.



The first legal provisions for the creation of the Levente Movement were contained in the Physical Education Law of 1921.<sup>117</sup> This law, which concerned many other important aspects of sports and physical education in Hungary, declared that the state would organize the physical education of all youth and that participation in this program would be compulsory for all males between the ages of 12 and 21 years; only those attending school would be exempted.

But due to the absence of an executive order by the Ministry of Religion and Education,<sup>118</sup> caused mainly by political and economic difficulties, this law was not put into effect until 1924. The executive order of the Ministry of Religion and Education which appeared in 1924 contained detailed instructions for the organization of the compulsory physical education program and with this the Levente Movement actually began.<sup>119</sup> According to this ministerial decree all members of the Levente Movement were required to participate in physical training for two hours per week--at least for five months but not more than an eight-month period per year. In addition, they were also obliged to participate in a full afternoon of physical training once a month.<sup>120</sup> In 1935 the length of the training period was extended to a minimum of eight months and a maximum of nine months per year with an additional three

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<sup>117</sup>Ivankovits, A Collection of Laws, op. cit., pp. 11-13.

<sup>118</sup>K. Schiller, The History and Present Status of the Levente Movement (Budapest: Stephaneum, 1935), p. 360.

<sup>119</sup>Ivankovits, A Collection of Laws, op. cit., pp. 14-54.

<sup>120</sup>Ibid., p. 20.





hours of practice each week.<sup>121</sup>

Although new decrees regulating the functioning of the Levente Movement appeared annually, from 1924 to 1939, the ministerial decree of 1924 served as a basis for its management. In 1939 a new law was passed which significantly altered its character. In the following section, the general purpose, operation and character of the Levente Movement will be described in the 1924-1939 period.

As the official sources stated, the aim of the Levente Clubs--the basic units of the Levente Movement--was to develop its members into individuals possessing a strong character and pure morality and thereby increase the strength of the whole nation. To achieve this aim the clubs were expected:<sup>122</sup>

(a) to increase--by physical training--the physical strength and skill, the work capacity and the resistance to disease of their levente members;

(b) to instil in their leventes a sense of patriotic discipline and patriotic duty and a desire for a morally pure life;

(c) to instruct the leventes in the norms of a healthy, continent life and teach them the elements of first aid;

(d) by providing courses, popular lectures, books and journals and by encouraging membership in choirs and orchestras to direct the leventes' activities into useful and constructive fields;

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<sup>121</sup>Ivankovits, The Development and Organization of Hungarian Physical Education, op. cit., p. 39.

<sup>122</sup>Ibid., p. 38.



(e) by maintaining a "Youth Home" to keep the older leventes from frequenting the taverns and the beerparlors and to make them familiar with the norms of social and community living; and

(f) to support all efforts aimed at providing vocational guidance to its members.

It is evident from these tasks that besides ensuring the physical fitness of Hungarian youth, and this included partial military training as well,<sup>123</sup> the Levente Movement was also designed to form and unify the ideology of its members. This ideology was based on traditional western Christian morality but possessed extremely chauvinistic overtones.

The content of physical training periods consisted of military drill, calisthenics and various sports. The most important of these were track and field, gymnastics, target shooting, soccer, bicycling, wrestling, and boxing. The physical training period also included instruction in fire fighting, and, if local conditions permitted, swimming, rowing, skiing, gliding, hiking and riding.<sup>124</sup>

The ministerial decree of 1924 made the villages and cities responsible for providing playgrounds, gymnasia and equipment for the Levente Clubs and gave them the right of expropriating suitable areas if they did not already possess a playground.<sup>125</sup> In addition, the villages and cities were made responsible for developing these playgrounds into regulation-size

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<sup>123</sup>K. Kiss, "The 1939 National Defense Law and the Levente Movement," Testneveles, 1:923, December, 1939.

<sup>124</sup>Ivankovits, A Collection of Laws, op. cit., p. 41. <sup>125</sup>Ibid., p. 46.



track and field and soccer stadia and they were required to carry most of the financial burden incurred by all aspects of the Levente Movement.

To ensure the financial support of the Levente Movement, the villages and cities were obliged to set up a physical education fund. The income for this fund originated from four sources:<sup>126</sup>

1. amounts budgeted for this purpose by the village and city councils;
2. gifts, legacies and foundations by private persons;
3. contributions set aside from the county physical education fund;
4. income from fines of those who failed to comply with the regulations regarding the Levente Movement (e.g., employers who did not permit the levente-age employees to appear for a training period).

But besides the villages and cities, companies and factories employing over 1,000 people of whom at least 100 were of levente age were also obliged to organize and support a levente club. And if there were at least 100 youths falling under the compulsory physical education law employed by several companies, the local physical education committee could require these companies to form a combined levente club.<sup>127</sup>

The Levente Movement, also referred to as the compulsory physical education program, was placed under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Religion and Education.<sup>128</sup> The various organs charged with its implementation were arranged in hierarchical order. The National Physical

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<sup>126</sup>Ibid., pp. 42-44.    <sup>127</sup>Ibid., p. 42.    <sup>128</sup>Ibid., p. 22.





Education Council, an appointed body, exercised direction over the Levente Movement through one of its five committees. The next step in the line of hierarchy was the county physical education committees. In order to coordinate the work of physical education committees and to ensure that the provisions of the Physical Education Law of 1921 were carried out, physical education inspectors were appointed by the Minister of Religion and Education.<sup>129</sup> The country was divided into seven large districts and a physical education inspector was appointed for each. Similarly, physical education inspectors were appointed for each county and to aid these inspectors in their work, the post of physical education leader was created. These leaders were usually assigned to city or village physical education councils--sometimes on a temporary basis--to help them in organizing the Levente Movement.

The orders of the ministerial decree of 1924 were soon put into effect and by 1924 there were club, local, area, city and county championships organized in several sports.<sup>130</sup> This trend continued over the years and by 1929 there were championships held in skiing, cross country, gymnastics, target shooting, swimming, cycling, wrestling and boxing.<sup>131</sup> Similarly, the cultural programs called for by the decree were also introduced. The extent of cultural activities can be well illustrated with the figures for 1928-29. In this year, in 106 levente clubs operating in the capital only, 1,096 lectures were held on such topics as history, geography,

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<sup>129</sup>Ibid., p. 35.    <sup>130</sup>Schiller, op. cit., p. 363.

<sup>131</sup>Hodaszy, op. cit., p. 95.



literature, theory of physical education, health, et cetera.<sup>132</sup> There was also an effort made to provide summer camps especially for leventes who came from low income families. These camps were considered to be one of the best means for the moral and patriotic education of the leventes.<sup>133</sup>

In 1938 the restrictions of the Trianon Treaty regarding the size of the Hungarian armed forces were lifted and consequently, there was no longer any need for concealing the true purpose and nature of the Levente Movement. While the Physical Education Law of 1921 (XIII Section) made the Levente Movement a joint responsibility of the Minister of Religion and Education and the Minister of National Defense, the National Defense Law of 1939 (II Section) made the Minister of National Defense solely responsible for its direction.<sup>134</sup>

The trend toward an emphasis on military training can be seen in the definition of the aims of the Levente Movement as stated in the National Defense Law of 1939. This law declared that by educating the youth of the country in the traditional Hungarian military virtues, it was the task of the Levente Movement to prepare the young leventes, both in body and in spirit, for the glorious defense of the motherland.<sup>135</sup> The law extended the length of compulsory participation in the Levente Movement to the actual date of the beginning of compulsory military service.

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<sup>132</sup>Ibid., p. 95.

<sup>133</sup>Ivankovits, The Development and Organization of Hungarian Physical Education, op. cit., p. 42.

<sup>134</sup>Bohn, Physical Education, op. cit., p. 276.

<sup>135</sup>G. Arato, "The Organization and Content of Our National Physical Education Program," Testnevelés, 5:36, 1941.



Consequently, there was no break in the physical and military training of youth from age 12 to about age 22-25 years, the end of military service. And since the National Defense Law of 1939 also included all students, both high school and university, in the Levente Movement, from this time on until the end of World War II all of Hungarian youth received a uniform type of physical and military training.

The National Defense Law, by placing the Levente Movement under the direction of the Minister of National Defense, abolished the physical education inspectorates. Their role was taken over by the district and local military commands. With this change, the Levente Movement was openly acknowledged to be an institution concerned mainly with the military preparedness of youth. It should be added, however, that together with physical and military training, the moral and ideological education of Hungarian youth in a chauvinistic spirit continued to be an important task of the Levente Movement.<sup>136</sup>

The above discussion of the organization and aims of the Levente Movement leaves no doubt that it was a nationalistic and militaristic organization created by the Hungarian government to further its internal and external policies. While the Physical Education Law of 1921 and the ministerial decree of 1924, which put the former into effect, emphasized the physical fitness aspect of the movement, the National Defense Law of 1939 clearly showed the importance of the Levente Movement as a preparation for military service. But it is clear from available

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<sup>136</sup> S. Zayzon, "Education for the Nation," Testneveles, 10:213, 1942.





sources that even before 1939 the main object of the movement was military preparedness. General Kiss, one of the supervisors of the Levente Movement, stated in 1939 that in 1921, due to the articles of the Treaty of Trianon, it was impossible to reveal the true purpose of the movement and that it had to be camouflaged in the role of a physical fitness institute.<sup>137</sup> He said that the actual situation before 1939 was as follows: (1) the Minister of National Defense set up the requirements; (2) the Minister of Internal Affairs looked after the financial arrangements; and (3) the execution of the program was under the direction of the Minister of Religion and Education.<sup>138</sup> Another source mentions that in the mid-1920's the leventes drilled with wooden rifles and that the local policemen instructed them in the use of rifles in secret.<sup>139</sup>

But besides ensuring the physical fitness and partial military training of Hungarian youth, the Levente Movement served other purposes as well. When participation in the Levente Movement was made compulsory for both high school and university students, boys of all the social classes came into close contact with each other. It was hoped by the government that the inclusion of all boys in the Levente Movement where all would be treated equally would help to eliminate the marked class division which existed between the higher and the lower classes at this time in Hungary.<sup>140</sup>

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<sup>137</sup>Kiss, loc. cit.    <sup>138</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>139</sup>Istvan Pluhar (ed.), The History of Sports Clubs in Hungary (Budapest: Kopeczi-Boocz, 1941), p. 323.

<sup>140</sup>B. Z. Toth, "Levente Education. The Psychological Problems of the Military Education of Youth," Testneveles, 6:489, 1942.



It was also hoped that by coming into close contact with those whom later on they would lead, the future leaders would get to know the mentality of their followers. An, in turn, the followers, that is, the common people, would recognize the intellectual superiority of their leaders.<sup>141</sup> Similarly, there is evidence indicating that the Levente Movement was indirectly employed to occupy the time of the unemployed and thereby prevent the dissemination of communist doctrines, especially in industrial areas.<sup>142</sup> It is interesting to observe that often the sports part of the Levente program was simply used as "bait" to get village youth interested in the Levente Movement. A speaker at the Physical Education Congress of 1930 relates such an incident as a recommended example.<sup>143</sup>

In conclusion, it may be stated with assurance that for about twenty years the Levente Movement involved most of Hungarian youth in physical fitness and sport activities. But even though these activities were beneficial from the point of view of health and physical prowess, their purpose was purely militaristic and nationalistic and they did not really aim for the betterment of the individual; any benefit to the individual was mainly incidental. It is clearly evident that the Levente Movement was brought about by the Hungarian government to serve both its chauvinistic internal and irredentist external policies.

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<sup>141</sup>Kiss, op. cit., p. 924.      <sup>142</sup>Testneveles, 1933, p. 1212.

<sup>143</sup>Testneveles, 1930, p. 958.



### The Scout Movement

In Italy and Germany the boy scout movement was banned by law to allow the unimpeded development of the Fascist youth organizations in the pre-World War II period. But since Fascism only gained control in Hungary at the end of World War II, the boy scouts and also the girl guides, or, as they were called, the "girl scouts," were not only permitted but encouraged to function in Hungary. Their mode of operation and philosophy was, however, unavoidably influenced by contemporary political philosophy. While retaining the emphasis placed on character building and outdoor living by Baden Powell, the founder of the movement, the Hungarian scout organizations became overtly nationalistic and militaristic in spirit.

After its introduction in 1910, the boy scout movement rapidly gained popularity in Hungary. From 2,000 in the 1910's the membership increased to 21,000 by 1921 and by 1935<sup>144</sup> it passed the 50,000 mark.<sup>145</sup> After World War I the character of the movement became decidedly nationalistic and militaristic. Besides the customary scout program, sports and openly militaristic activities as well were employed to promote nationalism and further the military preparedness of the boy scouts.

The avowed purpose of camping programs and leadership camps held annually on a large scale was not only to make the boy scouts better

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<sup>144</sup>K. Vidovszky, "The First Hungarian Boy Scout Troop was Formed Twenty Years Ago," A Magyar Sport Reneszanszanak Története (Budapest: 1932), Vols. III-IV, p. 58.

<sup>145</sup>Gy. Temesi, "The Hungarian Boy Scout Movement in 1935," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1935, op. cit., p. 244.





acquainted with the country but also to make them realize that "the same intense desire to be a better Hungarian existed in the people all over the land."<sup>146</sup> An important aspect of the boy scout movement was its involvement in sports, especially in those of direct military value.<sup>147</sup> Regular competitions were conducted in fencing, skiing, rowing, motorcycling, target-shooting and gliding. But more militaristic were the war games and spy round-ups conducted annually. In 1935, for instance, war games involving thousands of boy scouts were held. The boy scouts of Budapest held their war games on September 21-22 in the hills near the capital, with 3,500 scouts participating. In 1936,<sup>148</sup> as part of the celebrations for the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the Hungarian scout movement, a spy round-up was organized throughout the country with 21,000 participants.<sup>149</sup> Even more obviously militaristic was the gas defense exercise held in one of the sport stadia of Budapest on Boy Scout's Day in 1935 with 6,000 boy scouts participating.<sup>150</sup>

The Hungarian girl scout movement was less militaristic but was equally concerned with nationalism and physical well-being. Besides character building and education for practical life, the development of physical fitness was designated as one of the basic tasks of the Hungarian girl scout organization.<sup>151</sup> In the final analysis, both the boy and the girl scouts were, without doubt, exploited by the regime to support its

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<sup>146</sup>Ibid., p. 249.

<sup>147</sup>Ibid., pp. 245-60.

<sup>148</sup>Ibid., p. 252.

<sup>149</sup>Ibid., p. 244.

<sup>150</sup>Ibid., p. 252.

<sup>151</sup>Hodaszy, op. cit., p. 332.



militant nationalistic policies.

The Hungarian National Defense Union (MOVE)<sup>152</sup>

The Hungarian National Defense Union was not strictly a youth organization. It was formed in 1919 by the extreme right wing elements of Horthy's supporters and its main aim was political. The political importance of the MOVE can be well illustrated with the fact that its first honorary president was none other than Regent Horthy himself. The nature of the organization was clearly defined. The MOVE claimed to be the only sport union in Hungary whose basic concern was the improvement and the "purity" of the Hungarian race. It advocated a national policy which would have restricted the ownership of land to the "Hungarian" race alone. This policy was aimed against the Jews. By 1941 the MOVE had 60,000 members most of whom were active only in rifle shooting competitions. On the whole, this organization was much more interested in militarism and politics than in sports.

Militarized Control of Sport from 1941<sup>153</sup>

With the outbreak of World War II and Hungary's involvement in it, the role of sport and physical education and their value in terms of military preparedness acquired paramount importance for the government. In order to subordinate all sport and physical education programs to the

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<sup>152</sup>I. Pluhar (ed.), The History of Sport Clubs in Hungary (Budapest: Kopeczi-Booc, 1941), pp. 366-69.

<sup>153</sup>Otto Misangyi, "The Reorganization of Our Sport Life," Testneveles, pp. 843-851, 1941.



military effort, in 1941 the government abolished both the National Physical Education Council and the National Physical Education Fund, creating a militaristically-structured organization with a general at its head.

The responsibilities of the national leader, as this general was called, included the direction of the Levente Movement, the physical education program of the armed forces, the target-shooting program for youth, the military and physical education of girls not attending schools, school physical education, sport clubs and general health and medical services. These responsibilities were divided into two large groups: (a) military and Levente training conducted by the Minister of National Defense, and (b) school physical education and sports directed by the Minister of Religion and Education. School physical education remained directly under the control of the Minister of Religion and Education; for the direction of amateur sport, a new sport governing body, the National Sport Center, was created which was, however, responsible for its activities to the Ministry of Religion and Education. The new system completely abolished the democratic and independent character of sport leadership which had been manifested in the organization of the National Physical Education Council.

## NON-MILITARISTIC ASPECTS OF SPORTS

### System of Sport Competitions

In the course of the 1918-1945 period a comprehensive system of competition involving the whole country developed in most





sports.<sup>154</sup> Competitions were held at the local, county, district and national level in junior and senior divisions. To encourage more participation, the senior group was further divided into first, second and third classes. Besides individual championships, team championships were held in such sports as track and field, boxing, fencing, wrestling, gymnastics and others.

Though the rate of growth was not identical in all sports, the statistics compiled about the development of track and field is representative enough to illustrate the general pattern of development which was characterized by the steady growth in all sports.<sup>155</sup>

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF TRACK AND FIELD COMPETITIONS BETWEEN 1938 AND 1943

	Year					
	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Adults	160	174	219	301	321	359
Juniors	94	130	167	251	246	285
Women	31	35	40	48	38	67
TOTAL	285	339	426	600	605	711

TABLE V

NUMBER OF TRACK AND FIELD COMPETITORS BETWEEN 1938 AND 1943

	Year					
	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Male	1,476	1,400	3,598	9,125	14,386	15,231
Female	125	118	603	348	879	430
TOTAL	1,601	1,518	4,201	9,473	15,265	15,661

<sup>154</sup>Ferenc Zuber (ed.), Magyar Sport Almanach, 1935, complete text.

<sup>155</sup>Yearbook for 1943, Hungarian Track and Field Federation (Budapest: 1944), p. 34.



The same general pattern of growth is evident from statistics regarding the number of sport clubs in Hungary for the years 1939, 1940, and 1941.<sup>156</sup>

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF SPORT CLUBS IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1939 AND 1941

	Year		
	1939	1940	1941
Soccer	487	562	625
Shooting	-	230	514
Tennis	147	185	185
Track and Field	135	147	148
Wrestling	95	96	97
Swimming	91	95	104
Gymnastics	88	102	91
Table Tennis	74	93	66
Boxing	66	55	59
Fencing	66	71	93
Skiing	46	48	58
Rowing	38	41	41
Cycling	35	41	45
Ice Sports	32	43	50
Bowling	26	29	152
Handball	23	28	51
Riding	18	19	21
Grass Hockey	14	9	8
Sailing	9	8	8
Kayak	-	-	8

Probably due to the war effort, the figures about the number of competitors in these years do not exhibit the same steady pattern of growth. In about half the sports, there is some decrease in the number of competitors, while in the other half an increase is shown. On the

<sup>156</sup>Pluhar, op. cit., p. 376.



whole, however, the statistics indicate that, despite the problems raised by World War II, a vigorous sport program was carried on in Hungary, even in 1941.<sup>157</sup>

TABLE VII

THE NUMBER OF COMPETING ATHLETES IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1939 AND 1941

	Year		
	1939	1940	1941
Soccer	15,000	20,093	28,989
Track and Field	1,601	2,578	2,989
Swimming	2,006	2,036	1,371
Shooting	-	1,721	1,998
Wrestling	1,669	1,422	1,238
Tennis	1,414	1,386	673
Handball	400	1,018	1,565
Cycling	706	965	600
Gymnastics	646	825	589
Boxing	298	735	471
Table Tennis	929	569	828
Fencing	997	554	408
Skiing	488	468	289
Bowling	307	419	721
Ice Sports	104	419	118
Sailing	476	232	304
Grass Hockey	227	223	199
Rowing	214	197	614
Riding	215	58	221
Kayak	-	-	135

### Sport Badges

In order to reward outstanding athletes and to inspire more participation several systems of sport awards were introduced during the

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<sup>157</sup>Loc. cit.





1918-1945 era.

### MASZ Badges<sup>158</sup>

The first of the award systems was introduced by the Hungarian Track and Field Federation (MASZ) in 1920. It provided gold, silver and bronze badge awards for athletes achieving a certain level of performance. Only if an athlete succeeded in reaching or surpassing the standards in each event, as shown in the table below, did he receive the appropriate badge. Since there were ten required events and no options, it was difficult to gain a badge award. In 1920, for example, only one athlete was awarded the gold badge; and even in 1921 only six gold badges were given out.

TABLE VIII  
STANDARDS OF TRACK AND FIELD BADGES

	Gold	Silver	Bronze
100 meter	11 sec.	11.6 sec	12.8 sec.
200 meter	22.2 sec.	23.4 sec.	25.8 sec.
1,500 meter	4:08 min.	4:21.5 min.	4:49 min.
High Jump	189 cm.	176 cm.	153 cm.
Long Jump	715 cm.	665 cm.	575 cm.
Pole Vault	374 cm.	345 cm.	295 cm.
Shot	14.45 m.	13.00 m.	10.10 m.
Discus	44.75 m.	40.30 m.	31.30 m.
Javelin	58.60 m.	52.75 m.	41.00 m.
Hammer	52.00 m.	44.00 m.	31.00 m.

<sup>158</sup>Yearbook for 1920, Hungarian Track and Field Federation (Budapest: 1921), p. 279.



MOTESZ Badges<sup>159</sup>

In 1932 the National Gymnastics Federation (MOTESZ) initiated a badge program to develop reserves for competitive gymnastics. There were four categories: iron, bronze, silver and gold. In order to qualify for one of these awards gymnasts were required to perform a set of progressively more difficult routines on six apparatuses and reach a minimum standard expressed in terms of gymnastics point scores. The program proceeded successfully from the first year on and during the four years between 1932 and 1935, 4,558 iron and bronze badges were awarded. It continued to remain popular among students until 1945.

The Badge Program of the National Sport Center<sup>160</sup>

The National Sport Center, created in 1941, inaugurated a badge system for youth under twenty-four years in track and field. The high standards required indicate that the program aimed at creating a reserve of young athletes who could easily develop into athletes of national and international calibre (see Table IX).

Company Sport<sup>161</sup>

A unique feature of Hungarian sport life was the factory and office sport clubs supported by the individual companies. The leading manufacturers in Hungary, as early as the beginning of the twentieth century,

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<sup>159</sup> Yearbook for 1932, Hungarian Gymnastics Federation (Budapest: Athenaeum, 1933), p. 30.

<sup>160</sup> Yearbook for 1943, Hungarian Track and Field Federation, op. cit., p. 156.

<sup>161</sup> Mariasy, op. cit.



TABLE IX

## STANDARDS OF THE NATIONAL SPORT CENTER'S BADGE PROGRAM

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100 meter	11.2 sec.	High Jump	175 cm.
200 meter	23.4 sec.	Long Jump	660 m.
400 meter	52.8 sec.	Triple Jump	13.20 m.
800 meter	2:03 min.	Pole Vault	340 cm.
1,500 meter	4:15 min.	Discus	40.00 m.
3,000 meter	9:20 min.	Javelin	54.00 m.
5,000 meter	16:20 min.	Hammer	34.00 m.
100 meter Hurdles	16.8 sec.	Pentathlon	2600 points
400 meter Hurdles	1:01 min.	Decathlon	5000 points
1,000 meter Steeple Chase	3:10 min.	10 km Walk	58:00 min.
3,000 meter Steeple Chase	10:20 min.		

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realized that workers, to be productive, must be physically healthy, and on a small scale, they began to promote and support sport activities for their workers. Large scale development, however, only began in the 1920's, when the government made it compulsory for all companies employing more than 1,000 workers to provide facilities for the Levente program. Being compelled to go to a considerable expense and being well aware of the beneficial effects of a company sport program, not only in terms of physical health but in terms of class harmony and advertising as well, the companies began to build much larger sport establishments than they had been obligated to do.

By 1940 the membership of the sport clubs of private and state-owned enterprises totalled nearly 100,000 with 49,000 active members. The size of the budget of these clubs, if compared with the total expenditure of all the sport federations, reveals the vital importance that company sport had reached in Hungary. While the average yearly budget of the





sport federations was only 800,000 pengos, the average financial cost of the operation of company sport clubs came to 1,000,000 pengos annually.

The number of sport facilities owned by these private and state enterprises in 1940 is also very impressive:

TABLE X  
SPORT FACILITIES OWNED BY PRIVATE AND STATE ENTERPRISES IN 1940

Facility	Number
Combined sport field	113
Tennis court	279
Club house	63
Track and field stadium	57
Bowling alley	44
Shooting range	85
Swimming pool	27
Boating house	35
Gymnasia	27
Resort Area	17
Beach and recreation area	12
Skating rink	24

In order to indicate the share of company sport clubs in the facilities of the country, it is sufficient to directly compare only two figures. In 1935, there were 883 tennis courts in Hungary.<sup>162</sup> Five years later, in 1940, of the then existing tennis courts, 279 belonged to company clubs. Even if during the five years, which separates these statistics, some building of new courts occurred, it is still likely that in 1940 close to one-third of all tennis courts were in company ownership.

<sup>162</sup>Gyula, Mike, "Sport Facilities of Hungary in 1935," Testneveles, 7:14, 1936.



With respect to other facilities the proportion of ownership was approximately the same.

Keeping in mind the needs of the average worker, the company clubs placed slightly more emphasis on the recreation aspect of sport than on competitive sport. They considerably helped the development of tourism, bowling, boating and skating, and promoted group camping trips and river excursions. In this respect they laid down the foundation of the mass sport and recreational movement promoted much more vigorously by the Communist regime after 1945.

#### Facilities

TABLE XI  
SPORT FACILITIES OF HUNGARY IN 1935<sup>163</sup>

Facility	Number	Facility	Number
Playground	97	Ski run	5
School playground	67	Outdoor swimming	192
Sport field	1,997	Area (beach)	-
Combined sport field	318	Sport swimming pool	123
Cycle track	8	Boating house	137
Golf course	1	Club house	55
Shooting range	2,028	Sport hall	62
Horse racing track	8	School gymnasium	490
Ski jump	13	Tourist shelter house	66
Tennis courts	883	Skating rinks	211

Without a basis for comparison or without some knowledge of actual conditions any statistics tend to be meaningless. Accordingly, a cursory

<sup>163</sup>Ibid., p. 14.



examination of the above figures could suggest that Hungary was well supplied with a variety of sport facilities in 1935. However, this is far from the case.

One of the figures worth singling out from the list is the number of sport fields. The 1,997 figure is quite impressive, if one thinks in terms of fields equipped with stands, running tracks, dressing rooms, showers and washrooms. In reality, however, most of these fields were set aside in an emergency for the use of the Levente movement, and consequently, often they were without any of the above amenities.<sup>164</sup> Even out of the forty-three soccer fields in Budapest, only twenty possessed a running track, and of the forty-three soccer fields, only nine were covered with turf.<sup>165</sup> But these fields must have been badly neglected, since after an international soccer game between Austria and Hungary in 1935, complaints appeared in the Viennese press about the dusty condition of the field, implying that there was not a single properly-kept soccer field in Budapest at this time.<sup>166</sup>

A similar lack of facilities for housing large indoor sport meets existed in 1935. The Hungarian Wrestling Federation was compelled to postpone a return wrestling match with the Swiss National team three years in a row, because it could not find a large enough sport hall in Budapest to accommodate an international wrestling meet.<sup>167</sup> On occasions the arena of the local circus had been used, but at this time it was occupied

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<sup>164</sup> Ibid., p. 12.      <sup>165</sup> Ibid., p. 25.

<sup>166</sup> Istvan Pluhar, "Physical Education and Sport in Parliament," Testneveles, 5:584, 1935.

<sup>167</sup> Ferenc Kossuth, "Hungarian Wrestling in 1935," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., p. 66.





by professional wrestlers. The National Sports Hall, with a seating capacity of 2,400, was built later in this period.

An article which appeared in 1941 best summarized the lamentable dearth of adequate facilities in Hungary. It stated that there were not even one hundred properly equipped sport fields in Hungary. The criteria for the classification were: a seating capacity of five hundred, a four-hundred yard running track and dressing rooms supplied with running water. But even more deplorable was the proportion between the area of sport fields and the size of the population. The per capita area of sport fields in Hungary did not reach even one-tenth of the German average or one-sixteenth of the United States average.<sup>168</sup> In the light of these handicaps, the successes scored by Hungarian athletes in the 1918-1945 period are all the more remarkable.

#### Hungary in International Sport Between the Olympic Games

After a gradual overall improvement since the beginning of the century, in the 1918-1945 period Hungarian sport reached hitherto unprecedented heights in its history. Besides home competitions, international meets were organized with increasing frequency. By the 1930's active international relations developed in all sports. In 1931, for example, five international meets were held in track and field; of these one was at the junior level, one between cities and three between nations.<sup>169</sup>

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<sup>168</sup>Misangyi, op. cit., p. 849.

<sup>169</sup>Otto Misangyi, "Hungarian World Records in Track and Field," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., pp. 30-59.



In 1932 nine international games were played in soccer,<sup>170</sup> and in 1934, five international meets were held in wrestling.<sup>171</sup>

Undoubtedly to a great extent, due to increased competition both at home and abroad, the performance of Hungarian athletes was soon among the best in the world in many sports. Since it is not within the scope of this study to describe in detail Hungarian sport performances, it will perhaps suffice herein to examine only some of the most outstanding results.

One of the great moments of Hungarian sport in this era was the domination of the 1931 English National Track and Field Championship by Hungarian athletes. Out of thirteen events, they won eight and came second in three.<sup>172</sup> Another proud achievement of Hungarian track and field was the setting of world records in the shot put and the 300-yard dash in 1935.<sup>173</sup> The national boxing team had an unblemished record between 1925-1935. Out of its fifteen international meets, it won eleven and tied four.<sup>174</sup> The national swimming and water polo teams were similarly successful. In 1935 they won all three of their international meets, defeating Czechoslovakia, Austria and Germany.<sup>175</sup> One of the most

<sup>170</sup>"Soccer Statistics," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., pp. 30-59.

<sup>171</sup>"Wrestling in 1934," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1935, op. cit., pp. 154-58.

<sup>172</sup>"Results of the English Championships," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1935, op. cit., pp. 41-43.

<sup>173</sup>Misangyi, "Hungarian World Records, etc." op. cit., pp. 31-32.

<sup>174</sup>Artur Kankovszky, "Boxing in 1935," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., p. 156.

<sup>175</sup>Janos Merai, "Swimming and Water Polo in 1935," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., pp. 226-30.



spectacular successes was scored by the table tennis team which achieved world hegemony between the two World Wars. At the 1935 World Championships, for instance, Hungarian table tennis players won the gold medal in five out of seven events and placed second in two events.<sup>176</sup>

These results and those achieved at the Olympic Games to be described next indicate the high calibre that Hungarian sport reached by the end of the 1918-1945 period.

#### Hungary at the Olympic Games

Paris--1924, and Amsterdam--1928. The steady, though not spectacular, performance of Hungarian athletes continued at Paris in 1924, where they won two first, three second and four third places. They achieved a somewhat similar standing at Amsterdam in 1928, where they won three gold and six silver medals.

Los Angeles--1932. At the Olympics held in Los Angeles in 1932, the first really great and modern Games, Hungary placed sixth in the unofficial ranking of nations behind the United States, Italy, France, Sweden and Japan by winning six gold, six silver and five bronze medals. It was at this Olympics that Hungary first gained victory in water polo. This victory marked the beginning of the present Hungarian dominance in this sport.

Berlin--1936. In 1936 Hungary achieved her greatest success at

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<sup>176</sup>Ferenc Weinberger, "The Events of the Hungarian Table Tennis Sport in 1935," Magyar Sport Almanach, 1936, op. cit., p. 162.





the pre-war Olympic Games. At Berlin, with a total of ten gold, one silver, and one bronze medal, she moved up to third place in the unofficial rankings behind Germany and the United States. In general, Hungarian performances were in keeping with tradition, and beside the victories in fencing, a number of medals were won in wrestling and boxing, in which sports Hungarian athletes had several successes in earlier Olympic games. One remarkable fact was the victory of Ferenc Csik in the 100-meters free-style swimming, which broke the long run of Japanese wins in the sprint races. What makes Csik's victory all the more historic is that since then no European swimmer has succeeded in taking the Olympic title over this classic distance. And the only Europeans ever to win Olympic championship in this event have been the three Hungarian swimmers, Hajos, Halmai and Csik.



## CHAPTER V

### PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN HUNGARY BETWEEN 1945 AND 1965

#### PHYSICAL EDUCATION

##### Philosophy of Education

Education in Hungary is controlled and governed by the state. Therefore, it is unified and subordinated to the interests of the state. Schools are considered to be places for serious study. According to the party doctrine the children's duty is to go to school and study hard, just as it is the adult's duty to work in offices or factories. Education is based upon an official philosophy from which no deviation, however slight, is permitted or possible; although the education system and its philosophy are quite often remodelled not only to ensure that they will be in harmony with the maxims of Marxist-philosophical-materialism, the official Communist ideology, but also to ensure that they follow current Party politics.

The philosophy of education in Hungary is modelled on the Communist philosophy of education developed by Soviet Russian theoreticians. According to this philosophy the main field of education is divided into five major areas. These are:

1. education of the mind or intellectual education;
2. physical education;
3. moral education;
4. polytechnical education;
5. aesthetic education.



It is through the combined application of these aspects of education that Communist educators hope to achieve their aims.

Since the understanding of the concepts which Communist educators attach to these areas of education will be needed to comprehend the total educational philosophy presently practiced in Hungary, it is necessary to give a brief definition of each area.

1. Education of the Mind.<sup>1</sup> The aim of intellectual education is to develop the mental faculties of the students, that is, perception, attention, deduction, et cetera through the exercising of the mind by intellectual tasks. The second aim is the acquisition of the bases of the different sciences by the student. The amount of acquisition depends on the type of school: less in the elementary, more in the high school and even more in the university.

2. Physical Education.<sup>2</sup> The task of physical education is to develop a strong, healthy generation, able to work efficiently and be physically fit to defend the country. It is also an aim of physical education to preserve the physical fitness of the adult population for the same purposes.

3. Moral Education.<sup>3</sup> Moral education aims to equip the students with the new Communist ethics not through actual lessons in ethics but through the students' experiences in school and at home. Since this area of education is quite important from the point of view of physical

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<sup>1</sup>Gyorgy Agoston, Pedagogy I-II (Budapest: Tankonyvkiado, 1965), I, pp. 150-78.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 219-20.    <sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 200-14.





education, it will be discussed in detail later on in the study.

4. Polytechnical Education.<sup>4</sup> Polytechnical education is conducted to ensure that the student is able to accomplish in practice what he has learned in theory. Besides this, polytechnical education also helps the student to master basic skills in the various fields of production.

5. Aesthetic Education.<sup>5</sup> Aesthetic education aims to develop a sense of enjoyment of the beauties of life and nature. But the student should also be able to see beauty in work by applying the principles of socialist realism. Socialist realism considers pieces of art worthy of attention only if they have a useful purpose, that is, if they inspire the worker to more productive work. It denies the worth of art which intends only to delight. Aesthetic education also instructs the student in proper behavior towards society.

These five areas of education receive different emphasis in the various subjects of the curriculum and in the extra-curricular activities. But together they serve to achieve the aim of Communist education which is to ". . .create a new, socialistic man who possesses a materialistic point of view, communistic morals, and a strong will, who is also versatile and able to translate theory into practice."<sup>6</sup> A detailed examination of this definition of the aim of education in Communist Hungary reveals a close connection between educational philosophy and the official ideology of the Communist Party. And this is entirely

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 188-96.    <sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 214-16.

<sup>6</sup>Lectures in Pedagogy (Pedagogical College, Budapest, 1955).



logical from the Communist's point of view, since they aim to make the new generation into good communist citizens.

The first of the educational aims expressed in the definition is to produce a new, socialistic man possessing a materialistic viewpoint. This aim actually implies the acquisition of the basis of the philosophy of communism which is called Marxist-philosophical-materialism. The task of this philosophy is the search for the general laws of nature, society, and also the development of human thought. The means by which this philosophy studies nature and its phenomena is the dialectical method which is derived from Hegel. Its theory and the way in which it explains and understands the natural phenomena is materialist. The new, socialistic type of man is expected to use the dialectical method in his way of thinking, in his method of learning and in his relation to life in general. To reveal how the minds of the communist theoreticians work, it is necessary to present briefly the chief features of both the dialectical method and those of philosophical materialism.<sup>7</sup>

### The Dialectical Method

There are four features or maxims of the dialectical method.

1. Nature is not a casual heap of isolated things, objects and phenomena, but a coherent unity.
2. In nature there is always something in the state of arising, developing, decaying and dying. Therefore, things which at present seem to be stable and strong are not important because they are already

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid.



beginning to decay. Only the new, the arising things are invincible. This feature of the dialectical method gave Lenin faith in the birth of the socialist state and in the eventual destruction of all capitalist states.

3. The process of development is a simple, slow, growing process, but in which hidden, unimportant qualitative changes break into open, definite, quantitative changes. This slow change in society is called evolution; the sudden change is called revolution.

4. It is characteristic of the objects and phenomena of nature that they have inner contradictions or inconsistencies. The conflict between contradictions, between the new and old, the dying and developing elements, and the decaying and developing features, forces progress forward. So, according to this maxim, the contradictions of the class struggle should be heightened because that will hasten the coming of the communist society.

### The Maxims of Philosophical Materialism

1. The universe is composed of matter alone.

2. Matter, nature, and existence are objective realities which exist independently and outside of our consciousness. Matter is primary because it is the source of all sensation, motion and consciousness.

3. In the final analysis the world and its laws can be ascertained through experience and knowledge.

It is the task of education to mould students to such an extent that they will use the dialectical method in their work as well as in judging everyday and political events. While prior to the Revolution of





1956 Marxist-philosophical-materialism had been forced on students in compulsory ideological seminars, it seems that at present the methods applied to teaching the communist ideology are much subtler. A great deal of attention is paid to matching the technique used to the age of the students.<sup>8</sup>

The development of "communist morality and a strong will" is another objective of communist educators in Hungary. This they plan to accomplish through moral education.<sup>9</sup> The ideal of communist moral education is the so-called new, socialist type of man.<sup>10</sup>

The new, socialist<sup>11</sup> type of man does not find work a drudgery as workers in capitalist societies do. On the contrary, he enjoys work because he knows that the factories are owned by the people. He also develops a new relationship towards his fellow workers. Instead of

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<sup>8</sup>Agoston, I, op. cit., pp. 155-78.

<sup>9</sup>Agoston, II, op. cit., pp. 7-22. <sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>11</sup>To answer the confusion that might arise in the reader's mind about the almost interchangeable use of the terms "communism" and "socialism" and "communist" and "socialist," it is necessary to explain the meaning communist ideology attaches to these terms. Communists are those who believe and work for the creation of a communist society in which everyone will be expected to do the work he is capable of doing and everyone will be rewarded according to his personal needs. Presently, however, all the so-called Communist countries are either at the very beginning or in the process of developing a socialist society. In a socialist society the means of production are all state-owned, but the distribution of goods is not according to personal needs, but to personal talents. So while the philosophy which governs life in the "Communist countries" is communistic, the actual social order in which they live is--even according to official communist philosophy--only socialism.



ruthlessly competing against them, as this is done in a capitalist society, he helps his comrades when they are in difficulty even to the extent of criticizing them, if they have strayed away from the party line.

The new, socialist type of man is characterized by a "good communal spirit." He realizes and accepts as completely natural, the principle that in a socialist society the interest of the individual is subordinate to the interest of the group. Furthermore, he should develop a habit of self-criticism, which implies that he should always criticize his actions to see whether they interfere or clash with the interest of the group, that is, the factory, the government, and the party.

An interestingly contradictory, and in the long run probably untenable, feature of the new communist morality is revealed in the expectation that the new, socialist type of man should love his own country and its culture, but he should never forget that he belongs to the great family of socialist nations. As a good patriot, he should not only be willing to sacrifice his life for his own country, but for the sake of each country in the Soviet Bloc.

While, as can be seen from this discussion, morality, although in a rather different sense than it is understood in the West, is a major part of the Communist's educational aims in Hungary, these aims do not refer to the development of character at all. Obviously, they are aware of the complications which people of strong character might cause in their system. No people of strong character could accept unquestionably the sudden and unexplained changes in Communist policy which have so often made present-day traitors out of yesterday's heroes.



The definition of communist educational aims also includes "the production of a versatile man." It is expected that by partaking in suitable proportions from each main area of education the new communist citizen will be versatile. Such a man possesses both a well-developed mind and body, who, on completion of his secondary education, should be able to start further study in any of the trades or professions. He should be acquainted with the basic theories of the different sciences and at the same time should be ready for physically productive work.

Finally, the definition of communist educational aims also states that the new communist citizen should be able to put theory into practice. Communist education intends to achieve this aim through polytechnical education. Polytechnical education is somewhat similar to Industrial Arts as it is taught in Canada but, as was described earlier in the study, besides teaching the students certain technical knowledges and mechanical skills, it also aims at introducing them to productive labour.

Inevitably, at this point, one must ask just how effective communist education has been in Hungary. As the statistical data presented earlier in this study shows, it is undoubtedly true that the Communist regime has been successful in making education available to an increasingly larger number of people. It is similarly true that in the areas of intellectual education, as can be seen through the steady rise of high school and university graduates, and in graduates of physical education, as will be demonstrated later, they have achieved significant results. However, they have completely failed in the creation of a "new socialist citizen," for in 1956 it was the very youth whom they had attempted to







educate according to the communist principles of education who turned against them. Since 1956 the tone of propaganda has softened in education, but the government-approved university text on educational principles, published in 1962, still upholds the same doctrinaire views on education. And whether the Communists will be more successful in the production of the ideal communist citizen, remains to be seen.

#### PHILOSOPHY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN HUNGARY

##### The Place of Physical Education<sup>12</sup> in General Education

According to the official educational philosophy, physical education is equal in importance with the other areas of education. It is claimed that bourgeois educationists conceive of human beings as consisting of two distinctly separate parts: the mind, which is the superior, and the body, which is the inferior part. It is for this reason that physical education is considered to be an inferior subject in the capitalist countries. Only Marxist (another synonym for the terms "communist" or "socialist") pedagogy gives physical education its rightful place among the major areas of education.<sup>13</sup> Physical education, state the communist theorists, is inseparable from intellectual, polytechnical, moral and aesthetic education. There is a close connection between intellectual and physical education not only because a healthy physique is

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<sup>12</sup>Physical education is used by communist theoreticians as a broad term which includes sport also. This use of the term will be adhered to in this part of the study.

<sup>13</sup>Agoston, II, op. cit., p. 136.



a prerequisite of the proper functioning of the intellect, but because all phases of physical education require knowledge and mental activity. Physical education significantly contributes also to polytechnical education. It develops special skills and general coordination for varied physical activities which are closely related to elements of the movements employed in productive labour. Similarly, physical education greatly aids in the moral education of the "new, socialist type of citizen." Not only such individual characteristics as courage, perseverance and self-confidence, but characteristics of social and political implications, as, for example, the ability to subordinate personal interests to those of a group and patriotism, can also be developed through physical education. Finally, by teaching students to appreciate harmonious and graceful movements and a well-developed, beautiful, human body, physical education lends another dimension to aesthetic education which is carried on mainly through the teaching of music, art and literature.<sup>14</sup>

#### Communist Concepts Regarding the Role of Physical Education in Society

It is maintained by communist theoreticians that during the course of history, physical education has always served the interest of the ruling class in any given society.<sup>15</sup> This statement is based on the Marxian doctrine that in a given society the existing economic system determines the nature and purpose of the social institutions of that particular society. So, in the feudal system, for example, all institutions, among them physical education in the form of education for

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 137.

<sup>15</sup>Jozsef Czirjak, Theory of Physical Education (Budapest: Magyar Testnevelési és Sport Tanács, 1962), p. 22.



knighthood, served the interest of the feudal lords. Similarly, in a capitalistic society, physical education is employed by the ruling class, that is, the capitalists, for their own interests. According to communist physical education philosophy, there are two main systems of physical education in the world today:

1. the bourgeois system of physical education,
2. the socialist system of physical education.

In order to learn how the communist mind works, it is necessary to discuss these two systems as they are presently conceived of by communist theoreticians in Hungary.

1. The Bourgeois System of Physical Education.<sup>16</sup> The bourgeois system of physical education reflects to a lesser or greater degree the characteristic views held about economical, political, and moral problems in a bourgeois society. This system of physical education possesses the following features:

- A. the role of physical education in society;
- B. the monopolistic character of physical education;
- C. the eclectic character of the system.

A. The role of physical education in a bourgeois society. On the surface physical education is not considered important in bourgeois society. It is usually considered a private affair. But, in general, the upper classes, because they associate it with physical labour which they detest, despise physical education, and the petite bourgeois (the middle class) consider it an expensive luxury.

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-26.







Despite this, however, the bourgeoisie employs physical education to ensure the general health and at the same time support the cultural, economic, military and political ideology of the wealthy classes. In the exclusive sports clubs at the universities and the private schools, which only the members and the children of the ruling classes can enter, physical education is an instrument for the maintenance of health, the development of physical skills, and of recreation and enjoyment. Here they follow the ancient maxim: "a healthy mind in a healthy body."

It is also claimed by Czirjak, a leading physical education theorist, that in a capitalist society, physical education is used to make money. With the development of industry, factory sports clubs bearing the name of the company are formed by capitalists with the purpose of advertising their products. In a capitalist society many sports clubs are simply business enterprises, employing professional sportsmen with the sole purpose of earning money. The bribery and violence associated with professionalism is degrading to both spectators and participants.

Bourgeois ideologists attempt to hide the class-character of physical education. And they claim that sport is free from politics and class distinction. The facts of history have, however, refuted these claims. Repeatedly, the bourgeoisie have exploited physical education to further its political aims. The encouragement of mass interest and participation in sport and the propagandization of nationalistic slogans were designed to divert the masses and keep them from joining the workers' political movements. The best example of this phenomenon occurred prior to World War II when physical education became the instrument for the



propagation of Fascist ideas and for the military training of people in Germany, Italy, and in Hungary also.

B. The monopolistic character of bourgeois physical education. According to Communist philosophy another characteristic of bourgeois physical education is its monopolistic character and its caste-like organization. In a capitalist society there has never been and there can never be such a system of physical education which would serve the whole of the working masses. In the capitalist states, culture and education--and within this latter field--physical education have always been and still are the privilege of the ruling classes. The main reasons for the exclusion of the masses from physical education are these: (a) the members of the ruling classes have always despised the workers and despite the often publicized slogans that sport is non-political and that in sport all men are equal, they refused to participate in sport with them. In Hungary, for example, they formed exclusive sport clubs such as the Pest Nemzeti Vívó Intézet (National Fencing Club of Pest) and the Pest Hajós Egylet (Rowing Club of Pest) whose prospective members had to be from the higher classes, had to have at least a high school diploma, and had to be recommended by four club members. (b) The capitalist society has never intended and does not intend at the present to make physical education available for the workers. According to Marx--and he is one of the final authorities not only on economic and political questions but on everything else in the Communist ideology--capital is not concerned with the health of labor. It is simply concerned with the maximum capacity of labor which can be obtained from the worker in a given day. Capital achieves





this maximum by shortening the life-span of labor. It is not concerned with the health of labor, because there is always enough surplus of workers on the market to take the place of those who are no longer capable of producing. (c) The capitalist knows well that physical education not only promotes physical health but also develops self-confidence, courage, initiative and other positive mental characteristics which are a danger to his existence and, for this reason, he does not want the workers to participate in physical education.

C. The eclecticism of the bourgeois system. Another major feature of the bourgeois system of physical education according to Communist physical education theory is its eclecticism, the lack of unity, and the absence of consistency. This can be observed in the structure, content, and method of physical education. The state, the church, and the private enterprises direct their physical education independently from each other and the theory and practice often sharply contradict one another. The bourgeois system of physical education is generally characterized by chaos in theory, uncertain aims, and the occurrence of pseudo-scientific concepts.

2. The Socialist System of Physical Education.<sup>17</sup> "In a socialist society physical education is one of the major instruments for the education of the masses and an organic part of socialist education,"<sup>18</sup> states the text used for the teaching of the theory of physical education at the Hungarian College of Physical Education. Physical education is not only

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<sup>17</sup>Ibid., pp. 28-31.      <sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 28.





in close connection with intellectual, moral, aesthetic, and polytechnical education, but has an important role in promoting the national health by contributing to the development of strong, healthy citizens. This way it has a direct relationship with production, since healthy citizens are more able to use their mental and physical capacities for their work. But physical education constitutes a significant part of the workers' free time activities, aiming at both enjoyment and recreation. With the introduction of automation and the decrease in the length of the work week in the socialist society, physical education will have an even more important role to play partly by counterbalancing the harmful physical effects of automation and partly by providing for valuable free-time activities.<sup>19</sup>

It is claimed that in a socialist society physical education has a democratic character. No citizen is deprived of the opportunity to participate in sports because of lack of money or of social origin. (And it must be admitted that this particular claim is now true.)

Communist theoreticians do not attempt to hide the fact that physical education is used by the government to ensure the basic fitness of the people for military purposes. It is stated clearly in the text that physical education is expected to prepare the citizens for the defense of the socialist home-land against the imperialist enemies.<sup>20</sup> In this connection, it is interesting to note that a communist theoretician voices

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<sup>19</sup>It should be noted here before the reader is influenced by Communist propaganda that the decrease in the length of the work week has not so far materialized. Although in some dangerous industrial occupations, there has been some reduction in the length of the work week, as a matter of fact, most people still work forty-eight hours per week in Communist Hungary.

<sup>20</sup>Czirjak, op. cit., p. 29.



a complaint that military training does not receive sufficient emphasis in school physical education. And he cites Marx in his support, in that he conceived of physical education only in terms of its military values.<sup>21</sup>

The Communist Party, whose official name presently is the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party (MSZMP), has the final say concerning the philosophy of physical education in Hungary. An official Party statement about sport and education can illustrate official philosophy pertaining to the practical operation of sport organizations.

Practical training in the sports club should be conducted according to general educational theory and methods. The standards set before the participants should be based on the general ability level of the group, but should be always somewhat higher to ensure further development.

The socialist society demands from each sportsman: loyalty to the People's Democracy of Hungary which includes the love of the homeland and the love of the working class; compliance with the laws; that he study and work hard; sportsmanship; love and devotion to his sport club; observance of the rules and decisions of physical education and sport directing bodies, leaders and coaches.

An important aspect of the moral education of sportsmen should be education for work. The increase in the productivity of labour is in the interest of workers, because increased productivity will result in a higher standard of living. For this reason, participation and achievement in sport should be inspired by the love of sport, the championship trophy, excellence, the club, and in the final analysis by the love of the homeland and the working class. If this is not so, the main aim of sport is falsified, sport becomes self-centered, and hinders instead of helps production.<sup>22</sup>

The descriptions of the bourgeois and the socialist systems of physical education are by communist theoreticians, and therefore are obviously biased. While they blame the capitalist states for using physical education to prepare their masses for military service, they

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<sup>21</sup>Agoston, I, op. cit., p. 219.      <sup>22</sup>Czirjak, op. cit., p. 42.





openly admit that one of the basic aims of physical education in a socialist society is to train the people for military service. Similarly, although there is no reference to this point in the description of the socialist system of physical education, one cannot help but recall on reading this description the accusation that capitalist societies use sport for diverting the attention of the masses from contemporary political problems. The communist philosophy of physical education suggests, and the consequent discussion of sport in Hungary supports, the assumption that physical education and sport are used--among other things--for the same purpose in Communist Hungary also.

#### PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS

##### The Aims of School Physical Education in Communist Hungary

The aims of school physical education follow directly from the philosophy of physical education established by communist theoreticians. Although these aims may vary slightly according to the various levels of education, that is, kindergarten, general school, and secondary school, basically they are very similar. For this reason, it is sufficient to quote from the instructions to the general school curriculum for grades 5-8 to illustrate the aims of physical education in the present school system.

The task of physical education is to promote the versatile physical development of the student and to contribute to the formation of the traits characteristic of the communist man.

And in order to achieve this purpose physical education should:  
(a) acquaint the students with the basic skills of gymnastics, track and field, and sport games and create lasting interest toward these activities in the students;





(b) ensure through physical activities the healthy bodily development of the students and prevent and eliminate structural deformities; and according to the circumstances increase the organic strength, endurance, and resistance of the students both against physical fatigue and inclement weather;

(c) develop in the students both the mental and physical ability to react quickly in emergencies;

(d) develop the moral qualities of courage, self-discipline, and confidence, which are characteristic of the communist man, develop in students the ability to participate in communal life, and develop in them a sense and appreciation of aesthetic movements;

(e) help students form the conclusion that physical education and sport are important instruments for the preservation of health and working ability and that they are also a worthy and useful way of relaxation.<sup>23</sup>

It is intended that these aims of physical education will be achieved at all levels of education through curricula based on gymnastics, track and field, and games. The components of these activities are scaled and fitted into the curricula in an increasing order of difficulty from kindergarten to the secondary school.

The activities and exercises for the schools are classified below:

#### Kindergarten:

1. Marching drills;
2. Preparatory exercises: (a) calisthenics, (b) exercises with hand apparatus;
3. Basic exercises: (a) walking, (b) running, (c) jumping, (d) catching and throwing, (e) sliding, (f) crawling, (g) climbing, (h) bench exercises, (i) floor exercises;
4. Low organization games.

The activities and exercises for physical education in the general

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<sup>23</sup>Curriculum and Instructions for the General Schools (Budapest: Ministry of Education, 1962).



and secondary schools:

#### General School:

1. Marching drills;
2. Preparatory or warm-up exercises;
3. Walking exercises;
4. Running exercises;
5. Jumping exercises;
6. Throwing and catching exercises;
7. Hanging and Support exercises;
8. Games:
  - A. Indoor and outdoor games:
    - (1) simple running games,
    - (2) tag games,
    - (3) ball games
    - (4) contests.
  - B. Classroom games.

#### Grades 5 - 8:

- Gymnastics:
1. Marching drills;
  2. Conditioning and warm-up exercises;
  3. Floor exercises;
  4. Apparatus work;
  5. Vaulting.

#### Track and Field:

1. Running events;
2. Jumping events;
3. Throwing events.

- Games:
1. Running and tag games;
  2. Low organization ball games;
  3. Handball;
  4. Basketball;
  5. Soccer.

Swimming: Breast stroke.

Winter sports: skiing, skating, hockey, sleighing and snowball fighting (2-3 periods; optional).

#### Secondary School:

The content of the curriculum is generally the same as in the upper half of the general school, but on a more difficult level.



Volleyball and basketball are also included at this level.<sup>24</sup>

In the kindergarten, physical education activities are spaced out over the week; in the general and secondary schools there are two physical education periods, fifty minutes each, and sixty-six periods per year. Of these sixty-six periods, fifty-six must be spent on teaching the so-called basic curriculum and ten periods can be spent on specializing in a particular aspect of the curriculum. The choice of these activities is determined by the original subject matter in the curriculum, available facilities, interest of leaders, and abilities of students.

In the upper half of the general school, swimming is compulsory in Grade 5 for sixteen hours if facilities are available. European handball is the only game which is compulsory; it is introduced in Grade 6. Basketball appears in Grade 7 in the form of simple lead-up games. Interestingly, despite the immense popularity of soccer, it is not compulsory. It can, however, be taught as an optional activity for boys. Girls do not take soccer at all. Of the throwing events in track and field, only the shot put is introduced in the upper half of the general school.

Of the four sport games included in the curriculum of the secondary school, only two are compulsory for all grades. One of them will be selected by the teacher in Grade 1 and one in Grade 3. In track and field the teaching of the discus and javelin throw begins in Grade 3. In swimming, the teaching of the crawl and life-saving appears as an

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<sup>24</sup>Curriculum and Instructions for Secondary Schools (Budapest: Ministry of Education, 1965).





optional activity.

Since it would be too lengthy to include the curricula in their entirety, only a part of the general school curriculum is quoted as an example:

General School: Grade 5 (2 periods per week, 66 periods per year. Basic curricula 56 periods).

#### Gymnastics:

Conditioning or Warm-up Exercises: Playful calisthenics, bench, hand apparatus, partner and stall bar exercises. Formal calisthenics, bench, hand apparatus, partner and stall bar exercises. Climbing on poles or ropes. Boys: half way up. Girls: three successful holds.

#### Floor Exercises: Boys and Girls:

Forward and backward roll from straddle, squat and standing position to straddle, squat and standing position. Shoulder stand from sitting position rolling backward. Handstand with spotter. Connection of 2-3 parts into a routine with special emphasis on smooth transition.

#### Balance Beam: Girls:

At a height of 20-30 centimetres walking forward, sideways, and forward with leg and arm swinging.

#### Vaulting: Boys:

Crosswise on vaulting box (3-4 parts) horizontal vault, with legs together and also in straddle position, with arms sideways, forward and above head and with one half turns in the air. Front vault with bent legs over box (2-3 parts) both right and left. Jump on box (3-4 parts--lengthwise) and straddle off with body bent at the hips.

#### Vaulting: Girls:

Do the same vaults as the boys but on a lower box with the exception of the last vault.

#### Track and Field:

Running Exercises: Slow running at individual pace, relaxed leg movement conducted parallel to the direction of running in the vertical



plane, arms move naturally. Running with rhythm. Medium speed running at individual pace, as slow running but with more powerful and longer strides. By the end of school year 4 x 30 seconds run with 20 seconds of slow walk in between should be accomplished. Running with an increase and decrease in speed. Sixty metre dash, races. Standing start from behind starting line from natural straddle position. Start with proper starting signals with the leg in the back and opposite arm moving forward. Bunch start from behind starting line, leg in back coming forward first. Starting races 15-20 metres long with both methods of starting.<sup>25</sup>

As is evident from this quotation, the curriculum is not intended as a guide but rather as a prescribed course of study which must be rigidly followed. An interesting feature of the curriculum is that it provides certain general norms according to grades in the various activities. In track and field these norms refer to time and distance running, aimed at the development of endurance. There are no norms expressed in height or distance for the field events, although there are norms set down for style. In gymnastics and the sport games the level of difficulty of the various stunts or skills increase and the quality of the performance which the student should be able to attain is determined by the curriculum. Another unusual feature of the curriculum if compared to physical education curricula in North America is the detailed description of most movements and the consistent reference to the method of performing them. While it is not the purpose of this study to enter into a philosophical discussion on the values of conformity versus individuality, it seems proper to mention that this curriculum ensures that all students--where the facilities permit--receive and participate in a program which provides for their all-round physical development.

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid., complete text.



That the curricula are adhered to is further ensured by the system of half-yearly planning which requires the physical education teacher to break down the curriculum for each lesson half a year ahead. This simply means the listing of new skills taught and the main activities engaged in for the individual periods. From this plan the teacher is expected to make up his lesson plan in detail for each period.

### Lesson Plan

Since the success of any physical education program, to a great extent, depends on the physical education lesson, it is essential to examine the general approach to the teaching of physical education as it is revealed through the structure of the typical physical education lesson. In Hungary the physical education lesson consists of four main parts.<sup>26</sup> These are:

Part A (3-8 minutes) - Introduction.

In this section, after a formal line up, attendance is taken and excuses are checked out. Then the teacher announces what the main activities of the period will be. In the remaining time there is usually a short drill, in the form of marching.

Part B (10-15 minutes) - Warm up.

The main purpose of this section is to prepare the students for the heavier physical, and consequently, physiological load of the main part and also to provide for some degree of conditioning. This is done through calisthenics, hand apparatus, partner, and stall bar exercises.

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<sup>26</sup> Lectures in Pedagogy, op. cit., complete text.





In this section, the teaching of some basic movements, the knowledge of which is a prerequisite to the learning of certain skills to be taught in the next part of the lesson are also often included.

Part C (30-35 minutes) - Main part.

It is here that the review of already learned skills and the teaching and practice of new skills takes place; though new elements of drill or warm-up exercises are naturally taught in Part A and B respectively. At the end of this section, there is always a game: a relay, a low organization, or a sport game and no lesson is considered satisfactory if there is no game in it.

Part D (2-5 minutes) - Conclusion.

After the excitement of the game, the students are required to line up formally and by slow walking they are physically and mentally prepared for leaving the gymnasium and thus to get ready for the next class in a calm and disciplined manner. It is also customary to briefly evaluate the performance or behavior of the students or make announcements in this part of the lesson.

Significant characteristics of this lesson plan are the formality of the beginning and the end of the period and the inclusion of some type of game in all lessons. On the surface it seems that due to the formality the students might dislike physical education as a school subject, but the opportunity for individual activity in Part C (Main Part) and the game at the end of it balance favorably with the formal parts of the lesson. Consequently physical education is generally the most liked subject in the schools.



In Canada this kind of lesson organization, due to short physical education periods and the seasonal system of activities, would be impractical. However, in Hungary there is a ten-minute recess between each period and therefore the full fifty minutes of the physical education lesson can be utilized for teaching: changing and showering take place during recess. As for the inclusion of a type of game in each period concerned, this is made possible by the parallel teaching of prescribed activities. So while track and field and the outdoor games are taught mostly in the fall and spring and gymnastics during the winter, many lessons are of a mixed character in that some track and field, gymnastics and games skills are taught in the same period. In the fall and spring, the most common practice is to have track and field and some game skill taught in Part C of the lesson and to finish with some type of a game. In the winter, the emphasis is on gymnastics, but track and field and game skills are also included. This system of teaching is justified by the theory that it is the most suitable way to ensure all-round physical development and the formation of a favorable attitude toward physical education.

#### SPORT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

An unusual feature of Hungarian physical education, reflecting a deep-seated interest in sports, is the system of sport secondary schools. These, like other specialized secondary schools do for other fields of endeavor, provide special training in physical education for students between the ages 15-18 years. There are presently twenty-four such sport



schools in operation.<sup>27</sup> Unfortunately, there is no information on the details of the physical education curriculum in these schools. However, it is known that the general curriculum and organization of these schools corresponds closely to those of other secondary schools in all respects except in the number of physical education periods, which is ten per week. There is also more emphasis on competition and on quality of sport performance. Candidates for this school are selected from a large group of promising youngsters and graduates of these schools usually go on to be physical education teachers in the general or secondary schools. However, they are eligible for admission to any university or college in Hungary and there are many of them who choose another profession. The two-fold aim of these sport secondary schools is, on the one hand, to help prepare prospective physical education teachers, and on the other, to contribute to the development of excellent sportsmen by providing ideal training conditions for promising talents.

#### SPORT IN THE GENERAL AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

It is the role of school sports clubs to promote participation and competition not only in the activities included in the curricula but in those sports which are not taught in physical education periods. For both general and secondary school students there have been yearly district, town, county, and national championships in the major sports. But in 1965 the system of yearly national school championships was changed to a

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<sup>27</sup> Jozsef Veto (ed.), Sports in Hungary (Budapest: Corvina, 1965), p. 168.







four-year system.<sup>28</sup> In 1964, for example, national championships were organized for secondary schools in: table tennis, track and field, handball, basketball, soccer, volleyball, gymnastics, swimming, and fencing.<sup>29</sup> There were national championships for the Pioneers (the general school students) also in several major sports and numerous county championships in sports which are not included in the school curriculum. In November of 1965, for example, there was a county championship held for Pioneers, in wrestling, with 128 entries.<sup>30</sup> And in February of 1966 the first so-called "Winter Olympics for Pioneers" was organized for children aged 11 and 12 years. The events included table tennis, wrestling, chess, speed and figure skating, skiing, and sleighing.<sup>31</sup> The introduction of the "Winter Olympics for Pioneers" seems to be part of an attempt to raise the standards of winter sports in Hungary. Besides these championships, school teams play in inter-city school leagues and have dual meets. On the whole, however, there is less emphasis on regular extramural competition of the league type than there is in Canada.

Until quite recently it was compulsory for the physical education teacher to organize two sport clubs in his school for which he received a remuneration equal to about ten per cent of his monthly salary for each club. Consequently, all sports connected with the school were coached and organized by the physical education teacher. There were two

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<sup>28</sup>Lajos Endrodi (ed.), Yearbook of Hungarian Sport (Budapest: Sport, 1965), p. 8.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., complete text.

<sup>30</sup>News item in the People's Sport (Budapest), November 19, 1965.

<sup>31</sup>News item in the Illustrated Sport (Budapest), January 4, 1966.



consequences of this arrangement. If the teacher chose not to sponsor more than two activities--since there was no pressure on him to sponsor more--his school only specialized in two sports. If the teacher was interested in organizing other school teams, he was entirely free to do so. On the other hand, it was also possible for him to give private lessons, renting the school gymnasium at a nominal fee, in his choice of sport activity. The overall effect of this system was that a school usually specialized in those sports for which facilities were available and in which the physical education teacher was interested. Despite the system in which only the physical education teacher coached school clubs, in 1963 there were 3,705 sport clubs in the 6,162 general schools, and these clubs had a membership of 490,000<sup>32</sup> out of a total school population of 1,468,800 which includes grades 1-4 also.

In the 1963-64 school year, however, a new policy was inaugurated with regard to the supervision of school sport clubs by the physical education teacher. This new policy which restricts the number of sport clubs a physical education teacher is allowed to coach is probably intended to cut down on the overall income of physical education teachers, who take several coaching jobs in clubs outside the school, and also to ensure a better quality of coaching in the school sport clubs. The new regulation allows the physical education teacher to coach three school sports if he has no outside job, two if he works twelve hours or less per week, one if he works sixteen hours or less and none if his outside

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<sup>32</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook (Bureau of Statistics. Budapest: Kozgazdasagi es Jogi Konyvkiado, 1964), p. 187.



coaching work load reaches the twenty-four hours per week.<sup>33</sup>

While sports clubs cater to the more active and talented students, there are provisions made for the participation of the average or below average students as well. Regularly, class and school championships are organized; these are similar in character to the intra-mural sports in Canada. Various dual or group competitions or championships are conducted by mail. This is a common practice in track and field where the results can be easily compared. But competitions are held in other sports also, the number of participants being the criterion of success. Officially, however, the Kilian Physical Fitness Movement is considered to be the most important means of mass participation. This non-competitive movement is directed by the central physical education and sports governing body and it is aimed at ensuring the physical fitness of all citizens. Its main requirements are as follows:<sup>34</sup>

1. (a) the payment of a yearly fee of ten forints (about \$.40);
2. (b) a yearly attendance of a lecture on sport and physical education, or: the completion of a course for referees, judges, coaches or sport leaders, or: the completion of a course for hiking tour leaders and the completion of a course in map reading;
- (c) to learn to swim, if there are facilities for swimming, to ride a bicycle;
- (d) to obtain the number of points needed to get the various badges.

Note: Those under 30 are allowed to get 40% and those over 30 are allowed to get 60% of the points in one sport and in one event.

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<sup>33</sup>Gyorgy, Rostas, (ed.), Selection from Physical Education Literature: Theory, Organization and Leadership (Budapest: Tankomyvkiado, 1964), p. 133.

<sup>34</sup>Kilian Physical Education Movement, General Instructions, Magyar Testnevelési és Sport Hivatal (Budapest: Sport, 1961).







2. Badges:
- |     |        |             |
|-----|--------|-------------|
| (a) | Iron   | 100 points  |
| (b) | Bronze | 120 points  |
| (c) | Silver | 150 points  |
| (d) | Gold   | 200 points. |

The Kilian Movement has been most successful in the schools. Of the 578,000 participants between May 1, 1961 and the end of 1963, 449,000 were students and of the 246,000 badges awarded, 214,000 were given to students.<sup>35</sup> The explanation for this great proportion of students in the movement is obviously the fact that they are easily available for testing.

A very significant decision was made in 1965 by the MTS, the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation, with the intention of further developing mass sport. The new instruction for the 1964-65 school year provides monetary incentive for the physical education teacher to develop mass sport and the hiking movement in their schools.<sup>36</sup> It was in this connection that the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation introduced the four-yearly national championships in school sports. It is hoped that by organizing the national championships only once in four years instead of each year, the physical education teacher will not feel obliged to concentrate on champion athletes. Just what the effects of this new policy are and will be are not possible to ascertain yet.

#### FACILITIES FOR GENERAL AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In the 1963-64 school year there were 6,162 general schools in

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<sup>35</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 188.

<sup>36</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., p. 8.



Hungary.<sup>37</sup> In 1964 there were some 900 gymnasia, 542 soccer fields, 1,121 handball fields, numerous volleyball fields, ten swimming pools, and eight boat houses at the disposal of general schools.<sup>38</sup> The proportion of general schools without gymnasia seems extremely high. However, due to the large number of small general schools the proportion of students affected is much less. Most of the large elementary schools have gymnasia and many of the smaller schools in the villages are able to use the community hall for physical education during the winter. Nevertheless, the lack of gymnasia has been a serious problem and the curriculum still in force in 1957 consisted of two parts: one for schools having a gymnasium and one for schools without one. The curriculum for the latter type of school included more outdoor activities and for the winter, emphasized general conditioning exercises--especially bench exercises--and classroom games.

There are no statistics available on secondary school facilities. However, all secondary schools have a gymnasium. It had already been the practice in pre-war Hungary to build a gymnasium for each secondary school. And this practice has been continued in the present. However, few of the secondary schools, if any, have their own swimming pools and not many possess a regulation-size soccer field. But both the general and secondary schools have a yard equipped with jumping pits and often with outdoor gymnastic equipment. If the community stadium is nearby,

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<sup>37</sup> Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 161.

<sup>38</sup> Veto, op. cit., p. 182.



physical education classes are usually held there in good weather. And if there is a swimming pool in the neighborhood, it can also be used by the school.

The gymnasia are generally sufficiently equipped to carry out the requirements of the curricula, although many of them are quite old and do not have showering facilities. There are hand apparatuses, as for example, skipping ropes, hoops, Indian clubs, small rubber balls, and medicine balls, heavy gymnastic apparatus, of these there are more in the secondary schools, track and field equipment and balls for sport games. Regular features of each gymnasium are rows of stall bars against the walls which are often used for conditioning and warm-up exercises.

The lack of gymnasia in the general school system and the almost complete absence of swimming pools in both the general and secondary school systems are perhaps the most serious problems of school physical education at the present time in Hungary.

#### OBSERVATIONS AND FACTS ABOUT PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN THE SCHOOLS

It is suggested by physical education theorists that in the general school one to two minutes of calisthenics exercises should be given with the windows open if the class seems tired or restless.<sup>39</sup> It is quite a common practice.

The physical education teacher is expected to teach the students a

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<sup>39</sup>Agoston II, op. cit., p. 149.





set of conditioning exercises and persuade and inspire them to do those exercises regularly each morning or evening.<sup>40</sup> Just how successful this plan is no one really knows.

Official physical education theory is against the spirit of winning at all costs and warns against the danger of record mania.<sup>41</sup> On the whole, this philosophy is widely accepted by the physical education teachers and students.

Another major concern of physical education theorists is the danger of early specialization which results in unharmonious bodily development. They point out that early specialization in basketball is likely to result in a weak upper body or a hunch-back, while early specialization in gymnastics can cause an overly-developed upper body and a weak lower body.<sup>42</sup>

There is no formal health education connected with the physical education program although teachers are expected to point out normal health rules and the effects of various exercises during the physical education period. Knowledge about diet and the human body is acquired in biology classes.

There is a school physician appointed to each school, whose duty together with the physical education teacher it to keep a file on the growth and health of each student. Exemption from regular physical education classes is done at the recommendation of the school physician.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 149.      <sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 150.

<sup>42</sup>Czirjak, op. cit., p. 41.      <sup>43</sup>Agoston II, op. cit., p. 151.



In larger centers (over 15-20,000 inhabitants) those who are excused from regular physical education classes are required to participate in corrective physical education classes conducted by a specialist physical education teacher under the supervision of a physician.

The physical education teacher has twenty-four compulsory periods per week, an average of four classes per day in the six-day week. Just like any other teacher, he is not expected to stay in school if he does not happen to have a class.

The most important inspection of the physical education teacher is done by an inspector who is a specialist in physical education. The inspector considers in detail those aspects of planning and teaching which have been formerly described in this study. The teacher is expected to follow the curriculum and the half yearly plan very closely and have a lesson plan ready for each period.

It is compulsory for each school to organize a year-end physical education display with mass gymnastics, track and field events and games all included in the program. These displays are very popular with both students and parents and greatly contribute to the popularity of physical education.

Physical education is officially equal in status to any subject in the curriculum and is graded accordingly. In theory, if a student fails physical education he has to repeat the whole grade, just as if he had failed any other subject. Naturally, this is very seldom done. However, the possibility that it could be done definitely enhances the status of physical education in the schools. But physical education has a high



prestige generally because the government propaganda places high value on it and because good sportsmen have many privileges in Hungary.

Whether physical education and sports fulfil the role communist educational theorists have assigned to them cannot be ascertained unquestionably. On the basis of participation in sports and in mass physical fitness movements and on the basis of significant international successes by Hungarian athletes, it could be safely said that the present system of physical education has been successful in bringing up a healthy generation capable of "the building of socialism and the defense of the homeland." And it is also likely that perhaps more loyalty has been developed in the youth through the association of sport, national pride and the communist system. However, the development of the "new communist man," the aim of communist educators in Hungary, has not yet become a reality; as this point is well illustrated by the events of 1956. Before 1956 and since then also, youth in Hungary have participated in sports mainly because of the personal passion for sport or with a view to achieve glory and material success and do not seem to be much affected by the ideological principles of communist education.

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT AT THE UNIVERSITIES

### Physical Education

Physical education is compulsory for all university students for two hours per week until their graduation.<sup>44</sup> Unfortunately, there is no

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<sup>44</sup>Ministerial Decree, 1949 o. 66000/1949/99, Ministry of Religion and Education (Budapest, 1949).





detailed information regarding the curriculum. However, it is known that the compulsory physical education program, just like those of the general and secondary schools, is also based on track and field, gymnastics, and sport games. But this level has less emphasis on skills than on physical fitness and recreation.

### Sport at the Universities

While there is relatively little emphasis on physical education at this level, sport is promoted widely at the colleges and universities. Consequently, a sports club exists in all institutes of higher learning. University sport clubs are organized on the same pattern as the clubs for the working adult population. According to this system each university or factory has only one club, but numerous departments for the different sports. The university clubs enter their departments in the regular adult leagues and competitions at that particular class for which they qualify according to their level of performance. Besides participating in adult leagues, university teams enter the yearly national collegiate championships which are held in the following sports: table tennis, track and field, handball, basketball, soccer, volleyball, tennis, gymnastics, swimming, orienteering and fencing.<sup>45</sup>

Notwithstanding the provisions made for competitive, quality sport, there is an attempt to involve the majority of students in sport through various cup competitions resembling the house system of North American intra-mural athletics. The program carried on at the Heavy Industrial

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<sup>45</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., complete text.



Technical University at Miskolc is a good example of this system. Here, the two thousand students enrolled are divided into groups of 200-250 and competitions in track and field, swimming, hiking, handball, basketball, soccer and table tennis are organized between these groups. The winner of the highest number of points in a year of competitions receives the annual trophy for that year. The regulations governing this program ensure mass participation. One of the rules, for example, stipulates that a player can only play twice in one team sport during the course of the competition, although he is allowed to participate in all the sports. The sport club of this particular university has track and field, table tennis, handball, basketball, soccer, volleyball, skiing, gymnastics, hiking, orienteering, swimming, fencing, and skating departments with a total membership of 240.<sup>46</sup>

Another feature of sport at the universities is the awarding of annual perpetual trophies for combined academic and athletic excellence.<sup>47</sup> All award winners would require an average equivalent to about seventy-five per cent at Canadian universities. This award system has been practiced at most universities for two years now. During this time, at the medical and technical universities,<sup>48</sup> and at the university of the arts, forty-five students received the award. Out of this number, twenty-

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<sup>46</sup>News item in Sport Life (Budapest), October, 1965, pp. 26-27.

<sup>47</sup>Sport Life, July, 1965, pp. 23-24.

<sup>48</sup>It is a peculiar feature of Hungarian higher education that these and other institutions of higher learning are separately organized and independent universities.



five students were members of national teams (two were Olympic champions), fourteen belonged to the First Class category of the sport classification system and six to the Second Class. These figures indicate that academic excellence and high sport achievement often go together in Hungarian universities.

### TEACHER EDUCATION<sup>49</sup>

There have always been different institutions to train teachers for the various levels of education in Hungary. In 1960 a significant upgrading occurred in teacher training institutions, but these institutions continued to remain separate entities.

#### Kindergarten and Primary Grades

The training of teachers for kindergarten and primary school had, until 1960, been conducted in special secondary schools. Now, however, they receive three years of higher education at the college level.<sup>50</sup> Since there is no specialization at this level they receive instruction in the teaching of all subjects in the curriculum, including physical education. They take a course in physical education during both years of their training. Presently there are thirteen institutions for the training of kindergarten and primary teachers which in the 1963-64

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<sup>49</sup>There are no degrees awarded at Hungarian universities. Consequently, all teachers, whether of the elementary or secondary level, are given diplomas.

<sup>50</sup>Jozsef Bencedy and Vilmos Csoma, "Hungary: Educational Developments in 1959-1960," International Yearbook of Education, Vol. 22 (International Bureau of Education and UNESCO, 1960), p. 201.





school year had a total of 5,015 students, out of which 2,938 are regular daytime students.<sup>51</sup>

## UPPER GENERAL SCHOOL

### General Teacher Training

Prospective teachers of upper grades in the general school specialize in certain subject areas. The length of training, which had been two years before 1956 and three years until 1960, is now four years long. The latest extension of the length of study was made in order to make possible specialization in three subjects, instead of the usual two.<sup>52</sup> In the 1963-64 school year there were 10,080 students enrolled in the two general school teacher training colleges at Pecs and Eger.<sup>53</sup> Teachers not specializing in physical education take only the usual service program in physical education.

### Physical Education Teacher Training for the General School

Physical education teachers for the general school were trained at four teacher training colleges in a two-year course until 1955. The course provided for both teacher education and theoretical and practical work in physical education. The extensiveness of the program can be seen from the summary below.

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<sup>51</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>52</sup>Bencedy and Csoma, op. cit., p. 204.

<sup>53</sup>Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, loc. cit.



The Two Year Physical Education Program at the Pedagogical  
College of Eger<sup>54</sup>

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Subjects	1st Semester Hrs per week	2nd Semester Hrs per week	3rd Semester Hrs per week	4th Semester Hrs per week
Marxism	4 <sup>a</sup>	4	4	4
Psychology	3			
Russian	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	7	4	4	4
Track & Field	4	4	4	4
Sport Games	Handball 4	Basketball 5	Volleyball 4	Soccer 4
Theory of P.E.	3	3	3	3
General Biology	3			
Hung. Language	2			
National Defense	3	3	3	3
Pedagogy		6	3	
Anatomy		3	3	
Swimming		2		2
Games			2	
Practice Teaching			4	4
Health				3
Hist. of Education				2
Pioneer Movement				1
Total of Physical Education Courses	270 hrs	300 hrs	315 hrs	315 hrs = 1,200 hrs

<sup>a</sup>The college year is ten months long in Hungary out of which January and June are taken up with examinations.

Since the two-year program at the teacher training college was extended to three years in 1955 and to four years in 1960, the physical education teacher training program was also altered. Students were no longer allowed to major in physical education alone, but had to choose another major of equal importance. Presently, physical education teachers are trained at each of the four teacher training colleges in Eger, Pecs,

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<sup>54</sup>Official Lecture Book from the Pedagogical College of Eger, in author's possession.



Nyiregyhaza, and Szeged.<sup>55</sup> The physical education program at these colleges is identical. Out of the four years of training a total of one year is devoted to education courses and the remaining time is shared by physical education and the selected major.

Physical Education Course Requirement and Timetable<sup>56</sup>  
in the Teacher Training Colleges

Semesters (each 15 weeks)	Total	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
History of P.E.	15		1						
Theory of P.E.	90			3	3				
Teaching Methods	75					3	2		
Organization of Sports	25							1	1
Gymnastics	250	2 <sup>a</sup>	2 <sup>b</sup>	2	2	2	1	2	1
Track & Field	180	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	
Low Organization Games	60				2	2			
Soccer (men only)	30	2							
Handball	60			2	2				
Basketball	60					2	2		
Volleyball	25							1	1
Swimming	60		2	2					
Physiology of P.E.	60	2	2						
Total	990								

<sup>a</sup>An additional two hours for women in rhythmical gymnastics.

<sup>b</sup>An additional one hour for men in rhythmical gymnastics.

Besides the regular term examinations, comprehensive examinations are held at longer intervals. Such comprehensive examinations are held in the Theory of Physical Education, Gymnastics, Sport Games, Track and Field, and the Methods of Teaching Physical Education at the end of the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth semester, respectively.

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<sup>55</sup>Laszlo Szabo (ed), Calendar for the Hungarian Higher Institutions for 1966 (Budapest: Ministry of Education, 1966), pp. 103-107.

<sup>56</sup>Zoltan Kalmanchev (ed.), The Curricula and Programs of Physical Education at the Teacher Training Colleges (Budapest: Tankonyvkiado, 1964), pp. 4-5.





If compared to the old two-year program, the new one shows a remarkable similarity in course content and in hours of training, though actually the number of hours of instruction decreased from a total of 1,200 in the purely physical education courses in the old program to 990 in the new four-year program. Both of them are characterized by a relatively restricted scope of sport activities. This is due to the fact that the only aim of these programs is to train teachers who will be able to instruct physical education in the general schools and not to prepare the physical education students for wider leadership in the field of sport. This aim is well accomplished, since the curriculum of the general school consists of gymnastics, track and field, soccer, volleyball, handball, basketball and swimming, the activities which comprise the main part of the physical education teacher training program for the general school.

## SECONDARY SCHOOLS

### General Teacher Training

Teachers for all subjects, except physical education, are trained at the universities of Budapest, Szeged, and Debrecen. They specialize in two academic subjects and do not take any physical education courses outside the regulation service classes. In 1960, the length of their study was raised from four to five years.<sup>57</sup> In the 1963-64 school year there were approximately ten thousand students enrolled in teacher training.<sup>58</sup>

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<sup>57</sup> Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, loc. cit.

<sup>58</sup> Bencedy and Csoma, loc. cit.



Physical Education<sup>59</sup>

All secondary physical education teachers are trained at the Hungarian Physical Education College at Budapest. This institution was founded in 1925 and since then has become a directing influence on not only school physical education but on sport in general.

Admission to the College is based on high academic marks and an entrance examination. In this examination, emphasis is based on the athletic ability of the prospective students and those who cannot meet the standards in gymnastics, track and field, and in sport games are not admitted despite a good academic record. The emphasis on athletic performance is maintained throughout the four years of attendance. There are standards to meet in each sport taken and students failing to come up to the standards are not allowed to take the theoretical examination.

The facilities at the College are satisfactory in all respects except for swimming. Since the College has no swimming pool, students have to travel to the central swimming pool for classes. An indoor swimming pool is, however, now under construction at the College.<sup>60</sup>

The College has a library of 35,000 volumes<sup>61</sup> with the best collection of medieval literature on physical education in the world.<sup>62</sup> One hundred and twenty journals on topics related to physical education

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<sup>59</sup>Calendar, Hungarian College of Physical Education (Budapest: 1965-66).

<sup>60</sup>Illustrated Sport, November 30, 1965.

<sup>61</sup>Hungarian College of Physical Education, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>62</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Elmer D. Mitchell and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 339.



from fifteen different countries are ordered regularly. These are constantly being reviewed and translated by the library staff.

There are seventy-five professors and instructors on the staff.<sup>63</sup>  
 Their numerical breakdown according to departments is given below:

Track and Field:	7
Seasonal and Dual Sports:	7
Marxism-Leninism:	5
Physiology-Chemistry-Biology:	8
Education:	6
Sport Games:	14
Theory of Physical Education:	7
Gymnastics:	13
Foreign Languages:	4

The number of students in the 1962-63 school year was 333, in the correspondence course, 306, in the coaching course, 112, and in the sport leader training course, 264.<sup>64</sup>

The Hungarian College of Physical Education is presently conducting four different programs:

1. the regular daytime four-year program for physical education teachers in the secondary schools;
2. the five-year correspondence program--actually done at nights--for physical education teachers in secondary schools;
3. the three-year daytime program for fencing coaches;
4. the three-year correspondence program for coaches in the various sports.

1. The Regular Teacher Training Program. This is the most important of all programs conducted at the College. It is divided into eight semesters which end with an examination in each subject. The course

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<sup>63</sup>Hungarian College of Physical Education, op. cit., p. 9.

<sup>64</sup>Publications, Vol. II, Hungarian College of Physical Education (Budapest: 1963), p. 134.





requirement and arrangement are shown below.

<u>Courses</u>	<u>First Year</u> Hours per Semester	
	<u>1st Semester</u>	<u>2nd Semester</u>
Anatomy	60	45
Track and Field	45	45
Calisthenics (hand and small apparatus)	30	30
Biochemistry	30	-
Biomechanics	30	-
Handball	45	30
Russian	30	30
Economic Science	45	45
Hiking	46	-
Games	46	-
Gymnastics	30	30
General Physiology and Sport Physiology	-	30
Soccer	-	45 (15) <sup>a</sup>
Logic	-	30
Rhythmical Gymnastics	-	30
Volleyball	-	30
Alternative Compulsory <sup>b</sup>	-	30

<sup>a</sup>For girls.

<sup>b</sup>To be chosen from the list given later on.

	<u>Second Year</u>	
	<u>3rd Semester</u>	<u>4th Semester</u>
Track and Field	30	30
Calisthenics (hand and small apparatus)	30	30
Handball	30	-
Russian	30	30
Gymnastics	30	30
General Physiology and Sport Physiology	44	-
Soccer	30	30
Rhythmical Gymnastics	30	30 <sup>a</sup>
Volleyball	30	45
Alternative Compulsory	30	30
Psychology	45	30
Philosophy	45	30
Pedagogy	30	30
Swimming	30	30
Psychology Observation	-	20
Theory of P.E.	-	30
Fencing: Foil	-	30
Rowing: Kayak	-	112

<sup>a</sup>For men also.



Third Year

Hours per Semester

<u>Courses</u>	<u>5th Semester</u>	<u>6th Semester</u>
Track and Field	30	30
Calisthenics (hand and small apparatus)	30	-
Gymnastics	30	-
Alternative Compulsory	30	30
Philosophy	45	-
Swimming	30	30
Theory of P.E.	60	-
English, German or French	30	30
Health	15	30
Basketball	30	45
Pedagogical Observation	20	-
Teaching Methods of Sport Games	45	-
Sport Psychology	30	-
Sport Pedagogy	30	-
Thesis	Begin work	-
Track and Field Methods	30	-
Theory of Coaching	-	30
Preparation for Practice Teaching	-	45

Fourth Year7th Semester8th Semester

Track and Field	20	30
Gymnastics	38	36
English, German or French	40	-
Health	36	-
Basketball	56	-
Thesis	-	Complete
Scientific Socialism	40	46
Corrective Physical Education	40	30
History of Education	20	46
Organization of Displays	12	10
History of P.E. and Sport	20	30
Organization of P.E. and Sport	30	-
Practice Teaching	-	6 weeks
Tennis	-	20
Fencing: Sabre	-	30
Table Tennis	-	10



Alternative Compulsory Subjects

Wrestling  
 Foil  
 Weight Lifting  
 Tennis  
 Water Polo (entrance examination required)  
 Sport Movie Taking (entrance examination required)  
 Music of Physical Education and Sport Displays  
 Massage  
 Children's Gymnastics  
 Folk Dancing  
 Bosing  
 Table Tennis  
 Physical Education During Work  
 Judo  
 Fencing: Sabre  
 Fencing: Epee  
 Driving (entrance examination required)  
 Ice Hockey  
 Sport and Art

In the third and fourth year, students interested and expert in certain sports may also enter a coaching program lasting four semesters. On completion of this course and after one year of successful coaching, they receive a coaching diploma in their chosen sport.

It is also possible to take extra subjects--to a maximum of six--not already taken as alternative compulsories. These subjects may be chosen from the following list:

- I - II - III Years
  - English, German, French
  - Laboratory work in Physiology
  - Laboratory work in Sport Psychology
  - Sport and Art
  - Folk Dancing
  - Folk Games
  - Rhythmical Gymnastics (Men)
  - Soccer (Women)
- IV Year
  - Russian
  - Physical Education During Work
  - Building of Sport Facilities
  - Methodology of Coaching





In order to qualify for the diploma in physical education on completion of the four years' work, students are required to take state examinations (encompassing all the subject matter studied during the four years) from Philosophy, Pedagogy and the Theory and Method of Physical Education.

## 2. The Five Year Correspondence Program for Secondary Teachers.

In this course the general organization and subject matter is spread over one additional year. Although it is called a correspondence program it is more like a night course. There are lectures and practical sessions held at certain weekly intervals in each subject, amounting to about one-quarter of the lecture hours given in the regular program. The main difference between this and the North American correspondence programs is that instead of taking one course, as is the practice in North America, a student completes a whole year's work in any one calendar year. From the physical educator's point of view it is interesting to note that even though students enrolled in this program are usually older, the practical requirements are almost as stringent as for the regular day-time students. A significant difference between the day and correspondence program is that no foreign language is required in the latter, although it may be elected.

The other two programs are perhaps more related to sport than physical education, but since they are an organic part of the instruction given at the Hungarian College of Physical Education, they will be discussed here.

## 3. The Three Year Day-Time Program for Fencing Coaches. The general



requirements in this course are similar in many ways to those in the teacher training program. So besides specializing in fencing--sabre, foil and epee--they are also required to take such general courses as physiology, psychology, calisthenics, theory of physical education, philosophy and even swimming. They are also required to take French, this being the language in which most of the literature related to fencing exists, write a thesis, and at the end of the third year take comprehensive examinations in philosophy, pedagogy, theory of physical education and fencing. In the 1965-66 calendar of the Hungarian College of Physical Education only the second year course requirements are listed, indicating that there may not be any first or third year students at the present and that this type of "coach education" is perhaps on a rotating basis. A new program would start in a different sport when this course is over. This arrangement is definitely the case in the correspondence program for coaches.

4. The Three Year Correspondence Program for Coaches in Various Sports. The general organization of this course is similar to that of the correspondence course for teachers and the requirements are similar to those of the day-time coach program for fencing coaches. In the 1965-66 academic year there are courses given in the following sports:

<u>First Year</u>	<u>Second Year</u>	<u>Third Year</u>
Handball	Track & Field	Handball
Soccer	Basketball	Soccer
Riding	Pentathlon	Boxing
Shooting	Volleyball	Swimming
Swimming	Gymnastics	Water Polo



Subjects TakenFirst Year

<u>Subject</u>	<u>1st Semester</u>	<u>2nd Semester</u>
Anatomy	x	x
Biology	x	
Calisthenics	x	x
Political Economy	x	x
History of Physical Education	x	
Special Field	x	x
Biochemistry		x
Theory of Physical Education		x

Second Year

Physiology	x	x
Philosophy	x	x
Psychology	x	x
Organization of P.E. & Sport	x	
Special Field	x	
Theory of Coaching		x
Pedagogy		x

Third Year

Health	x	x
Psychology	x	x
Organization of P.E. & Sport	x	
Pedagogy	x	x
Scientific Socialism	x	x
Special Field	x	x

As shown, foreign languages are not compulsory, but may be taken as desired.

Graduate Program

There is no organized graduate program in physical education in Hungary. There have been, and there are at the present, a few people with a doctorate working in the field of physical education. But they obtained their degrees not in physical education, but in medicine, the arts, or the sciences.





## RESEARCH IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Research in sport and physical education is conducted at two research institutions in Hungary: at the National Institute for Physical Education and Health and at the Institute of Physical Education for Scientific Research. In addition, extensive research is carried on at the Hungarian Physical Education College.

National Institute for Physical Education and Health

The National Institute for Physical Education and Health, which is located at Budapest, is ten years old. It includes the National Sport Physicians' Institute, a hospital with three hundred beds, a therapeutic clinic for sport injuries and a research laboratory. The National Sport Physicians' Institute is connected to the network of sports medical centers in the country which are in charge of the sportsmen's health. A certificate issued by one of these centers is necessary before anyone is allowed to compete in sports. These sport medical centers conduct periodical physical examinations on all registered sportsmen and also provide treatment in case of injury.<sup>65</sup>

The Research Laboratory of the National Institute for Physical Education and Health, having a research staff of eighteen--most of whom are medical doctors--conducts research in physical fitness, work capacity, fatigue, muscular control, sport psychology, and sport mechanics.<sup>66</sup> It

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<sup>65</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 186.

<sup>66</sup>M. Nemessuri, "Unpublished Report of the Director of National Institute for Physical Education and Health" (Budapest, 1966).



has the following laboratories:

1. Ergometry:       (a) cardio-vascular  
                     (b) cardio-respiratory
2. Neuro-functional
3. Bio-chemistry
4. Sport anatomy: biometer
5. Physiology of movement
6. Neuro-physiological
7. Sport psychological
8. Bio-electronic
9. Mechanics of movement
10. Cinamatography
11. Animal experiments
12. Documentation and movement analysis (by drawing).

#### Institute of Physical Education for Scientific Research<sup>67</sup>

The Institute of Physical Education for Scientific Research was founded at Budapest in 1959. It operates with a yearly budget of about \$43,000. There are three departments in the Institute each being concerned with a separate area of study:

1. The Department of Mass Sport and Physical Education conducts physiological and psychological (closer to sociology than to psychology in North American terms) research in connection with mass sport.
2. The Department of School Physical Education investigates the physiological, psychological and other effects of the various sports in the school curricula.
3. The Methodological Department is concerned with the investigation of the best methods for the training of young athletes.

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<sup>67</sup>J. Bakonyi, "Unpublished report of the director of the Institute of Physical Education for Scientific Research," (Budapest, 1966).



In order to show the nature of the studies conducted at the Institute a brief description of the research work of the Department of School Physical Education is included here. Presently this department is investigating the physical, physiological and psychological effects of the different activities in the curricula. They have selected one hundred experimental and one hundred control classes. In the experimental classes the number of physical education periods per week was raised from two to four. These classes are divided into several groups in which only one sport, for example, track and field, a certain sport game or gymnastic, is being taught. The effects of these programs are then interpreted in terms of anthropometric and physiological measurements.

Besides laboratory research, studies related to attitudes of school and university students and parents have also been conducted in recent years.

## SPORTS IN HUNGARY

### Organization of Sport

The organization of sport in Hungary had been highly centralized even before World War II. The out-of-school phases of physical education and recreation had been directed by the National Physical Education Council which operated downward through the county and local Physical Education Committees.<sup>68</sup> The general pattern of sport organization had been imitated by the Communist government, but several changes have been

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<sup>68</sup>Kalman Ivankovits (ed.), A Collection of Laws and Ministerial Orders Regarding Physical Education (Budapest: Stadium, 1935), pp. 22-36.





introduced by it since 1945. The latest reform occurred in 1963 when the hitherto extremely centralized nature of the national sport organization was somewhat modified with the intention of developing mass sport.<sup>69</sup> It is claimed that the new organization is based on the people and that it, in fact, is a social body with only a few executives.<sup>70</sup>

Presently the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Council is the highest authority in sport in Hungary. This council is made up mostly of Communist Party members and its main role is to interpret the current Party and government (these two terms are synonymous in Communist Hungary) policies which are then put into practice by the National Congress of Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation. To understand how this sport organization functions, one must keep in mind that the Communist Party is represented in every social institution. Members of the Council, the majority of whom are probably Communist, are present in the Federation and other members, elected from local sport association, are also likely to be members of the Communist Party. But even if they are not all Party members, there will always be sufficient numbers of Communists in these organizations to put forward the Party's point of view which has to be accepted by all other members.

#### The Structure of Sport Organization in Hungary

The Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Council<sup>71</sup>

The National Congress of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation (475 delegates) and the National Auditing and Financing Committee.

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<sup>69</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., pp. 3-6.

<sup>70</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 170.

<sup>71</sup>Rostas, op. cit., pp. 109-16.



The National Council of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation (150 delegates)

The National Executive of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation

The National Secretariat of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation

Individual Sport Associations

Administrative Apparatus

41 Different Sports:

Executive:

table tennis, track and field, automobile racing, judo, sky diving, rowing, grass hockey, speed skating, archery, kayak, canoeing, bicycling, handball, basketball, scuba-diving, soccer, horse-sport, modelling, motorboat racing, motor bicycle racing, figure skating, boxing, military sports, triathlon, pentathlon, amateur radio, volleyball, chess skiing, sport-fishing, sport-shooting, sport-flying, weight lifting, orienteering, bowling, tennis, gymnastics, swimming, diving, sailing, fencing, water polo.

1. Methodology
2. Sport
3. Administration
4. Education-Research
5. Finance
6. Propaganda
7. International relations
8. Planning and investment.

Sport organizations at the county and local level are also under the control of the Secretariat:

#### Secretariat

Budapest Conference of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation<sup>72</sup>

(As Above)

The County Conference of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation and County Auditing and Financing Committee.

County Council of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation.

All sport clubs, Town or district sport councils.

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<sup>72</sup>Due to its importance Budapest is organized independently from the county system but it has exactly the same structure.



Secretariat (Continued)

District, factory, university and  
secondary school clubs.

Club structure

Council--Auditing and Financing  
Committee

Executive

Szakosztályok (Departments)<sup>73</sup>

In addition, the Secretariat is also responsible for the People's Stadium, the National Sport Swimming Pool, the Hungarian College of Physical Education, Physical Education Research Institute, all sports publications, and tourist hostels.

Sport Classification System

Sport activities other than mass sport and recreation are organized according to a hierarchical sport classification system. Competitors in all sports are divided into junior (under twenty) and adult (over twenty) groups, and within these groups into several classes. These athletes are then officially registered and given a certificate to prove their status. The various divisions can be seen below:

Juniors:	Pioneer
	Juvenile
	Junior Second Class
	Junior First Class
Adults:	Third Class
	Second Class
	First Class
	Master of Sport level

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<sup>73</sup>Each club has several departments concerned with only one sport; these departments are called "szakosztályok."





In the junior group the subdivision is based mainly on age, except between the Junior Second and First Classes, where it is based on quality of performance. To move from one class to another a sportsman has to satisfy certain requirements. In all sports these requirements include participation in competition at a certain level a defined number of times. In sports where performance can be expressed numerically, as for example, in inches and seconds in track and field, or in points in gymnastics, a certain standard achievement is required. In sport games the number of participation in games at the various levels of classification determines the status of a sportsman. Those athletes who reach the Master of Sport level are of international calibre. As the tables following indicate, these standards are not easy to achieve, and to move from one class to the next takes concentrated effort.<sup>74</sup> And for this reason, registered athletes possess considerable prestige.

### Sport Clubs

Competitive sport in Hungary is based on factory, office, district, town, village, school and university sport clubs. Most of these clubs have several and the major clubs of larger cities numerous "szakosztályok" or departments for the various sports. In each department paid coaches prepare members for competition. The number of clubs, their departments and their members are shown in Tables XV, and XVI.

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<sup>74</sup>"Unified Sport Classification System," Sport Federation Department of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Office (Budapest: Sportlap és Konyvkiado, 1960), pp. 19-20.



TABLE XII

## QUALIFYING STANDARDS FOR ADULT MEN IN TRACK AND FIELD

Event	Master of Sport	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
100 m	10.4 sec.	10.9 sec.	11.5 sec.	12.2 sec.
200 m	21.0 sec.	22.2 sec.	23.6 sec.	25.0 sec.
400 m	46.6 sec	49.8 sec	53.5 sec	57.0 sec
800 m	1:48.0 min	1:53.0 min	2:04.0 min	2:12.0 min
1000 m	-	-	2:35.0 min	2:50.0 min
1500 m	3:42.5 min	3:52.0 min	4:15.0 min	4:35.0 min
3000 m	8:00.0 min	8:32.0 min	9:15.0 min	10:20.0 min
5000 m	14:00.0 min.	14:45.0 min	16:00.0 min	17:00.0 min
10000 m	29:35.0 min	31:30.0 min	34:00.0 min	37:00.0 min
25 km	1:20:00 hr	1:28:00 hr	1:38:00 hr	1:50:00 hr
110 m Hurdles	14.3 sec.	15.5 sec.	17.0 sec.	19.0 sec.
110 m Hurdles(91.4 cm)	-	-	15.0 sec.	16.5 sec.
80 m Hurdles	-	-	12.0 sec.	13.0 sec.
200 m Hurdles	-	25.5 sec.	27.0 sec.	30.0 sec.
400 m Hurdles	51.8 sec.	55.5 sec.	60.5 sec.	65.0 sec.
1500 Steeple Chase	-	-	4:48.0 min	5:00.0 min
3000 Steeple Chase	7:45.0 min	9:15.0 min.	10:40.0 min	11:30.0 min
Marathon	2:28:00 hr	2:50:00 hr.	3:15:00 hr	3:45:00 hr
High Jump	205 cm	191 cm	176 cm	160 cm
Long Jump	765 cm	700 cm	630 cm	590 cm
Pole Vault	445 cm	390 cm	340 cm -	290 cm
Triple Jump	15.70 m	14.30 m	13.00 m	12.00 m
Shot (7.25 kg)	17.30 m	15.00 m	12.50 m	10.50 m
Shot (6 kg)	-	-	13.50 m	12.00 m
Shot (5 kg)	-	-	14.20 m	13.50 m
Discus (2 kg)	54.00 m	48.00 m	38.00 m	32.00 m
Discus (1.50 kg)	-	-	42.00 m	37.00 m
Javelin (800 gr)	76.00 m	63.00 m	52.00 m	42.00 m
Javelin (600 gr)	-	-	52.00 m	42.00 m
Hammer (7.25 kg)	63.00 m	54.00 m	43.00 m	33.00 m
Hammer 6 kg)	-	-	46.00 m	38.00 m
Hammer 5 kg)	-	-	45.00 m	35.00 m
Decathlon	6,400 pts	5,200 pts	4,000 pts	3,000 pts
Pentathlon	-	-	2,300 pts	1,800 pts
Traathlon	-	-	1,800 pts	1,500 pts
5 km Walk	-	-	26:00 min	29:00 min
10 km Walk	-	49:00 min	56:00 min	1:05:00 hr
20 km Walk	1:32:00 hr	1:45:00 hr	1:55:00 hr	2:15:00 hr
50 km Walk	4:30:00 hr	5:10:00 hr	5:52:00 hr	6:35:00 hr



TABLE XIII

## QUALIFYING STANDARDS FOR ADULT WOMEN IN TRACK AND FIELD

Event	Master of Sport	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
100 m	11.7 sec	12.4 sec	13.2 sec	14.2 sec
200 m	24.2 sec	25.8 sec	28.8 sec	31.0 sec
400 m	55.5 sec	60.0 sec	66.0 sec	75.0 sec
800 m	2:10.0 min	2:20.0 min	2:35.0 min	3:00.0 min
80 m Hurdles	11.0 sec	12.0 sec	13.5 sec	15.8 sec
High Jump	166 cm	152 cm	140 cm	130 cm
Long Jump	600 cm	540 cm	490 cm	420 cm
Shot	15.00 m	12.80 m	10.50 m	9.00 m
Discus	50.00 m	42.00 m	33.00 m	24.00 m
Javelin	53.00 m	42.00 m	32.00 m	24.00 m
Pentathlon	4,400 pts	3,600 pts	3,000 pts	2,600 pts
Triathlon	-	2,000 pts	1,700 pts	1,500 pts





TABLE XIV

## QUALIFYING STANDARDS FOR ADULT MEN AND WOMEN IN SWIMMING

Event	Master of Sport	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
<u>Men</u>				
100 m Free Style	57.0 sec	1:00.0 min	1:04.0 min	1:08.0 min
200 m Free Style	2:08.0 min	2:14.0 min	2:23.0 min	2:33.0 min
400 m Free Style	4:34.0 min	4:48.0 min	5:10.0 min	5:30.0 min
800 m Free Style	9:40.0 min	10:10.0 min	11:00.0 min	12:00.0 min
1500 m Free Style	18:16.0 min	19:14.0 min	20:30.0 min	22:00.0 min
100 m Butterfly	1:03.0 min	1:06.0 min	1:12.0 min	1:18.0 min
200 m Butterfly	2:25.0 min	2:33.0 min	2:45.0 min	3:00.0 min
100 m Breast Stroke	1:14.0 min	1:18.0 min	1:25.0 min	1:30.0 min
200 m Breast Stroke	2:42.0 min	2:50.0 min	3:00.0 min	3:20.0 min
100 m Back Stroke	1:04.5 min	1:08.0 min	1:12.0 min	1:18.0 min
200 m Back Stroke	2:24.0 min	2:32.0 min	2:45.0 min	3:00.0 min
400 m Mixed	5:25.0 min	5:35.0 min	6:10.0 min	6:40.0 min
<u>Women</u>				
100 m Free Style	1:04.0 min	1:07.5 min	1:12.0 min	1:16.0 min
200 m Free Style	2:23.0 min	2:30.0 min	2:40.0 min	3:00.0 min
400 m Free Style	5:05.0 min	5:20.0 min	5:40.0 min	6:00.0 min
100 m Butterfly	1:13.0 min	1:17.0 min	1:25.0 min	1:32.0 min
100 m Breast Stroke	1:23.0 min	1:27.0 min	1:34.0 min	1:40.0 min
200 m Breast Stroke	2:55.0 min	3:03.0 min	3:20.0 min	3:35.0 min
100 m Back Stroke	1:13.0 min	1:17.5 min	1:25.0 min	1:32.0 min
200 m Back Stroke	2:43.0 min	2:50.0 min	3:05.0 min	3:20.0 min
400 m Mixed	5:55.0 min	6:18.0 min	6:40.0 min	7:10.0 min



TABLE XV

NUMBER OF SPORT CLUBS AND SPORT CLUB MEMBERS IN 1963<sup>75</sup>

Sport Organization	Number Of Clubs	Number Of Members
Sport association clubs	4,400	913,000
Pioneer organizations	3,705	490,000
M.H.S. Clubs (Hungarian National Defence Sport Clubs)	1,788	34,000

TABLE XVI

THE MAIN STATISTICAL DATA OF SPORT CLUBS ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SPORTS IN 1963<sup>76</sup>

Sport Associations and Clubs	Departments Number	Members
Table Tennis	2,921	36,736
Track and Field	1,375	33,881
Wrestling	133	4,396
Judo	39	1,163
Rowing	142	5,406
Skating--hockey	27	1,056
Kayak - Canoeing	59	2,461
Bicycling	199	2,254
Handball	1,793	40,802
Basketball	605	19,898
Soccer	3,473	101,778
Riding	42	854
boxing	144	4,420
Pentathlong and Triathlon	22	417
Volleyball	1,757	26,950
Chess	2,586	31,674
Skiing	94	1,942
Sport-shooting	125	2,336
Weightlifting	117	2,750
Bowling	938	14,107
Tennis	282	7,765
Hiking	959	60,583

<sup>75</sup> Hungarian Statistical Pocketbook, op. cit., p. 187.<sup>76</sup> Ibid., p. 188.



TABLE XVI (Continued)

Sport Associations And Clubs	Departments Number	Members
Gymnastics	568	15,109
Swimming, Water Polo	260	9,985
Sailing	42	1,831
Fencing	117	4,019
Other	370	27,968
TOTAL	19,189	462,541

There is a remarkable discrepancy between the two tables. In Table XV the total number of sport club members, Pioneer and M.H.S. members included is 913,000, while in Table XVI it is 462,541. There is a possibility that secondary school students and university students are not included in Table XVI. In addition, another source states that in 1962, 1,390,000 workers and students were registered in 4,100 clubs, 950 tourist sections and 3,800 school clubs of the country.<sup>77</sup> And if these claims are true then about every eighth or ninth person in Hungary is engaged in regular sport activity.

#### Participation in Sports

Whether these figures are accurate or not, it is a fact that there is a very large group of athletes regularly competing in local, district, county, national or international competitions or championships on any one weekend. To illustrate this point it is enough to acquire a copy of Nep Sport (The People's Sport) and list the sport events taking place on a

<sup>77</sup> Veto, op. cit., p. 168.





weekend.<sup>78</sup>

Saturday, November 19, 1965

Table Tennis: First Class Team Championships  
 Women: 3 dual meets  
 Men: 2 dual meets  
 Wrestling: First Class National Team Championship  
 Second Class Team Championships: A and B Divisions  
 Juvenile Class: National Individual Championship  
 (Greco-Roman style)  
 Judo: First Class Team Championship, 9th round  
 Ice Hockey: International Meet: F.T.C. - Villard de Lens  
 Soccer: Third Class Championship:  
 South-West Division: 1 game  
 North-Central Division: 1 game  
 Budapest Championship: 1st Class, 1 game  
 Boxing: First Class Team Championship: 2 dual meets  
 Second Class Team Championship: Eastern Division: 1 dual meet  
 Volleyball: First Class Championship: 1 game  
 Chess: Women's National Individual Championship 8 - 19th round  
 Gymnastics: National Junior Second Class Championship: girls  
 Swimming: National Novice meet of the Ujpesti Dozsa Club<sup>79</sup>  
 Fencing: Budapest Cup: Junior Sabre Team Championship

Sunday, November 20, 1965

Table Tennis: First Class Team Championships:  
 Women: 3 dual meets  
 Men: 3 dual meets  
 Wrestling: The Saturday program is continued.  
 Ice Hockey: International Meet: Ujpesti Dozsa - Villard de Lens  
 Handball: Budapest Cup 2nd round: First Class Championships:  
 Women: 3 games  
 Men: 4 games  
 Basketball: First Class Championships:  
 Women: 1 game  
 Men: 7 games  
 Boxing: First Class Team Championships: 4 dual meets  
 Second Class Team Championships: Western Division:  
 4 dual meets; Eastern Division: 1 dual meet.  
 Volleyball: First Class Championship:  
 Women: 2 games  
 Men: 6 games  
 Chess: Finals of the Women's National Individual Championship  
 First Class Men's Team Championships (5th round): 6  
 dual meets

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<sup>78</sup>People's Sport, November 19, 1965, p. 3.

<sup>79</sup>The major clubs, of which the Ujpesti Dozsa is one, have nationwide networks of smaller clubs.



Swimming: The novice meet of the Ujpesti Dozsa continues.  
 Fencing: First Class: Individual Sabre competition.  
           Second Class: Individual epee.  
 Soccer: Second Class Championships:  
           Eastern Division: 8 games  
           Western Division: 8 games  
           Third Class Championships:  
           North-Central Divisions: 6 games  
           Northern Division: 7 games  
           South-Western Division: 7 games  
           Budapest Junior Cup Finals: 1 game  
           Friendship Cup: 2 games

Hungarian Teams Abroad on Weekend of November 20, 1965<sup>80</sup>

National Soccer team in Brazil  
 Vasas Soccer Club in Africa  
 Komlo Soccer Club in Romania  
 Budapest Postas Soccer Club in Austria  
 Figure Skaters in Czechoslovakia and East Germany  
 Women's National Basketball team in Romania  
 Budapest Handball Team (men) in Romania  
 Women's National Volleyball Team in Moscow  
 National Waterpolo Team (B) in Moscow

While the above sport program roughly covers the whole country, local and district championships or meets are not included in it. The program indicates the existence of a system of national team championships which encompasses all the sports, although the organization of these team championships varies from sport to sport. So, for example, in soccer, the most popular sport in Hungary, the team championship is spread out over a long fall and spring season with a large number of games. But in track and field the number of dual meets in which a club team participates is considerably lower. However, there is a team championship organized along the lines of soccer championships with dual meets during the weekends. A certain number of points are awarded for entering a meet and the

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<sup>80</sup> On this particular weekend the majority of the teams were in Communist countries, but generally the international sport program is evenly divided between East and West.



winner of the team championship is decided according to the number of points accumulated during the season.<sup>81</sup>

The frequency of international competitions or games in which Hungarian athletes participate can be well illustrated by the statistical figures for track and field meets and soccer games during 1964. In this year Hungarian track and field athletes took part in thirty international competitions, some of which were between clubs, others between national teams, A, B, or Junior, and some were open competitions.<sup>82</sup> The figures for soccer, even though it is the most popular sport, are quite astounding. In 1964 there was a total of 193 international games played. Of this number sixty-one games were played by local and district teams, eighty-seven by teams in the national first division (class) league, eighteen international cup games played by teams in the first division, and twenty-seven games were played by national teams of various levels (A, B, C, Junior, provincial: players from Budapest excluded) and college national teams.<sup>83</sup>

### Sport Schools

The government's great concern with success in sport is reflected in the establishment of sport schools. In these schools youngsters are trained in after-school hours in the sports in which they show exceptional promise. In 1964 there were sixty-six sport schools in Hungary.<sup>84</sup>

"We have achieved the greatest development in the Central Sport

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<sup>81</sup>Sport Life, May, 1965, p. 20.

<sup>82</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., pp. 129-40. <sup>83</sup>Ibid., pp. 225-34.

<sup>84</sup>Ibid., p. 9.





School in Budapest," says the vice-president of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation, "the membership of which has reached 1,873."<sup>85</sup> He further points out that while the total number of registered pentathlon athletes in Hungary was 140 in 1964, the Central Sport School had 188 children in its pentathlon department. Such pre-occupation with future development explains the continued success of the Hungarian pentathlon athletes.

A very similar program is being currently developed for the summer months when children of working mothers are taken into child-care centers which emphasize sport activities. In many counties sport training camps are built, partly by community effort, to provide facilities for the best young athletes in the country.<sup>86</sup>

A rather unusual type of sport school was established in 1965 for young swimmers. Since travelling to school, to practice and home took up the whole day for these swimmers, three dormitories were established for them at three different swimming pools in the country. There are forty young swimmers living in these dormitories at the present. It is claimed that their performance has improved considerably since they have moved into the dormitories.<sup>87</sup>

#### National Training Camp for Youth

There has recently been established a national sport training center at Tata in Transdanubia. It can accommodate 250 athletes at a

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<sup>85</sup> Loc. cit.      <sup>86</sup> Sport Life, November, 1965, p. 22.

<sup>87</sup> Ibid., April, 1965.



time.<sup>88</sup> In the summer, the most promising young athletes are taken there for two-weekly periods in a great variety of sports to improve their techniques under the direction of expert coaches. There is a report in the July 20, 1965 issue of Kepes Sport (Sports Illustrated) stating and showing by photographs that 14-15 year old children from seven sports were training at this camp. These sports were: handball, basketball, volleyball, fencing, track and field, tennis, and gymnastics.<sup>89</sup>

#### National Training Camp for Adults

The national training camp for adults has long been in operation at Tata. It is located at the same place where the youth training camp has recently been established. In pleasant natural surroundings and with modern facilities for all except the winter sports, it is used mostly for the training of national teams before international competitions. Often, however, county teams, factory teams or teams of various clubs have the opportunity to use these facilities, although it is more common that the clubs send their members to their own yearly two weeks long training camp. The remarkable feature of this practice is that athletes of relatively low status, even those in the Third and Second classes, have the opportunity to improve their performance in these camps.

#### Sport Leader and Coach Training

Sports leader and coach training is also considered important in Hungary. In 1964 the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation further developed and consolidated the training of physical education and

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<sup>88</sup> Endrody, op. cit., p. 11. <sup>89</sup> Illustrated Sport, July 20, 1965.



sport personnel. According to the decree of May 20, 1964, the education and preparation of sport leaders, coaches and other personnel is done at three levels of increasing difficulty in the following areas:<sup>90</sup>

- scientific workers
- physical education teachers
- sports leaders
- coaches
- hiking guides
- judges and referees
- experts in sport medicine
- instructors for physical education during work
- other specialists.

As was noted in the discussion of the curricula of the Hungarian College of Physical Education, the training of coaches is carried on through a three-year course at this institution. This is the highest level of training. For the two lower levels of proficiency, training is conducted by County Councils of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation and also by the Budapest Council of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation. The general emphasis placed on mass leadership training can be well illustrated by the training course conducted for soccer coaches in 1965. In three groups altogether 300 new soccer coaches were trained and examined during the summer of 1965.<sup>91</sup> Although the numbers are much smaller, the same type of training is conducted for coaches at the lower level in all the other sports practiced in the country.

#### Emphasis on Quality Sport

Much of what has been said about sport in Hungary clearly reveals

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<sup>90</sup> Endrodi, loc. cit.      <sup>91</sup> Sport Life, October, 1965, p. 22.





a concerted effort on the part of the government to develop quality sport. The sport classification, the sport schools and the training camps all serve this purpose. Besides these, however, there are other features in the Hungarian sport system which ensure the development of quality sport.

For years it has been, and at the present it still is, the policy of the central sport governing body to arrange the national sport calendar in such a manner that national championships and international meets will serve as preparation for the European, World and Olympic championships. Of these, the Olympic Games are considered to be the most important sport event in the world, and to ensure success in them, three years prior to each Olympics all competition in Hungary is geared to the preparation for the Olympic Games.<sup>92</sup>

In order to secure a constant supply of first class athletes in most sports, several national teams are selected. These teams not only practice as a unit but all of them play international games with their counterparts in other European countries where the same system is used. For example, it is quite frequently that a national A, B, and C and a junior team play soccer games against the corresponding teams of another country. But national junior teams or individual athletes often compete internationally on their own. It was on such an occasion that Peter Maroth won the junior sabre fencing world championship in 1965.<sup>93</sup>

Another method of ensuring the development of quality sport is the

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<sup>92</sup>Ibid., September, 1965.      <sup>93</sup>Ibid., June, 1965.



system by which the major sport clubs, such as the MTK, the FTC, the Ujpesti Dozsa, the Vasas, or the Honved and some others, are assigned the task of developing athletes of First Class and the Master of Sport level.<sup>94</sup> In order to be able to fulfil this task, they are given extra financial support, facilities, and personnel. Consequently, most of the top athletes in Hungary belong to one of these clubs.<sup>95</sup>

Finally, to provide incentive and also time for training, sportsmen of the Master or international level are given regular time off from work. Sometimes this privilege remains even when the athlete retires and becomes a coach. It was remarked in the Kepes Sport (Illustrated Sport) in connection with the early retirement of a swimming coach, a former European champion, that she retained, even as a coach, the daily two-hour exemption from work.<sup>96</sup> The top athletes, for such work exemption, and all athletes for competition time, receive compensation by the state. Before 1956 all athletes of the First Class and Master of Sport level were given monthly so-called "calorie payments" to improve their diet. Whether this practice is continued or not is not known.

It should also be noted here that the practice of giving all coaches, judges, and referees a fair remuneration for their services also significantly contributes to the development of quality sport.

A peculiar feature of quality sport in Hungary is its concentration in the capital. In most sports--the major exceptions being water polo

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<sup>94</sup> Loc. cit.

<sup>95</sup> Veto, op. cit., pp. 149-60.

<sup>96</sup> Illustrated Sport, November 30, 1965.



and swimming--the majority of athletes (a safe estimate would be 70 per cent) on the national team are from Budapest. The best facilities, the best coaches, and the most opportunities for competition are there. And for this reason, all the best athletes tend to congregate there. To raise the standard of sport in the provinces to the level of sport in the capital is a problem which the sport administration has not yet solved.

### Recreation and Mass Sport

There is little recreation in Hungary in the sense it is understood in North America. For city dwellers, swimming pools provide the main form of recreation through physical activity. Recreation in the North American sense is available to those who spend their holidays at state resorts, at state expense, where facilities for indoor and outdoor games and swimming or skiing and skating, depending on the season, are available. Other types of recreation, such as participation in drama, choirs, or in the creative arts, can be pursued at the factory or office clubs organized for this special purpose.

It is, however, through various badge tests and mass sport movements that the government attempts to cater to the physical recreational needs of the people. In harmony with Communist educational philosophy, the government has supported and at the present continues to develop mass sport because it contributes to the development of the so-called "socialist man" and also because it prepares "him" for the building and defense of socialism.<sup>97</sup> There are two propagandistic claims constantly made on

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<sup>97</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., p. 4.





behalf of mass sport by Communist officials in sport administration. First, they claim that only in a socialist society can the masses participate in sports due to the equality of opportunity that exists in socialism. Then, they also claim that the reason behind Hungary's international sport successes is the existence of mass participation in the country. While there are certain facts supporting these claims, available evidence from official sources points to serious weaknesses in the mass sport movement.

The first attempt at involving the masses in sport was made in 1949 through the MHK (Ready for Work and Combat) badge test.<sup>98</sup> It was almost a direct copy of the Soviet GTO movement. It was promoted with extensive propaganda and a great many people took the test. But the major failure of the MHK was that very few of the badge winners had participated regularly in sport before taking the test and even fewer continued to do so after. Due to this and other failures, the MHK was allowed to fade out of existence.

Official propaganda, however, still maintains that the MHK was a great success and that many talented sportsmen were discovered through it.<sup>99</sup> In order to discuss this question fully would require a separate study and for this reason suffice to say here that the very fact that the movement was discontinued points out its failure. In addition, when official sources describe current sport practices, they occasionally contradict each other. Such contradiction occurs, for example, in the book titled Sports in Hungary only a few pages after the successes of the

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<sup>98</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 164.

<sup>99</sup>Loc. cit.



MHK have been discussed in glowing terms: "The major difference between sport activities of some time ago and today is the emphasis on continuity; it has been realized that there is no lasting value in the occasional outing once or twice a year or in taking part in one swimming contest in a summer."<sup>100</sup> This statement is a good criticism of the MHK movement.

The Kilian Physical Movement, which has already been described in connection with school sports, was launched in 1961. It bears the name of a Communist hero, and for this reason it was supposed to inspire the youth of the country for further success. As the statistics indicate, insofar as numbers are concerned, this movement is most successful in the schools.

Another mass movement partially connected with sports is called "Youth for Socialism."<sup>101</sup> Those who participate assume an obligation to fulfil the requirements in work, studies, culture and in sports. The standards in sports are not too difficult because the movement aims at a general development of the "socialist man" while also furthering the popularization of sport.

The "Village Spartakiads"<sup>102</sup> organized in the major sports are aimed at involving the rural youth in sports by organizing sport clubs where there were none or only a few before, and this movement undoubtedly has increased regular participation. However, the fact that the annual national finals of village spartakiads was abolished in 1964--being supplanted with four-yearly finals--indicates that the village spartakiads

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<sup>100</sup> Ibid., p. 167.

<sup>101</sup> Ibid., p. 166.

<sup>102</sup> Loc. cit.



began to emphasize quality of performance and not the involvement of the masses.<sup>103</sup>

Another attempt at increasing participation was introduced in 1962. This was the National Sport Festival to be organized every fourth year in which outstanding sportsmen would participate along with young people representing mass sport. The Festival is supposed to illustrate the point that outstanding competitors and the movement for mass recreation in sport are developed simultaneously.<sup>104</sup>

The military aspect of mass sport, however, is not allowed to disappear from view. Regular "National Defense" championships are held each year in which both men and women participate. The events include running 1,500 and 3,000 meters, climbing ropes, grenade throwing, target shooting, balancing, and running in a gas mask. It is claimed that in 1965, 360,000 people took part in the "National Defense" movement.<sup>105</sup>

There is also great concern for keeping the workers efficient at their job by the introduction of short exercise periods during work. Although use of the exercise period is not wide-spread yet, it is slowly gaining popularity.<sup>106</sup> Since Swedish experience with exercise during work seems to indicate that it is beneficial to the worker's health and consequently profitable for the factory,<sup>107</sup> the practice, if successful, will certainly further one of the important aims of Communist education.

<sup>103</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., p. 8.      <sup>104</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 168.

<sup>105</sup>Illustrated Sport, September 21, 1965.

<sup>106</sup>Sportlife, June, 1965.      <sup>107</sup>Van Dalen, et al., op. cit., p. 258.





Despite these widely publicized mass sport movements, it seems evident that the regime has not been successful in ensuring mass participation on the scale it had intended. This is indicated by the revolutionary decision of the Congress of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation in 1963 which altered the practice of organizing new sport clubs from above and made sport clubs into a type of social organization, hitherto unprecedented in Communist Hungary, which can be formed by the people at their own will.<sup>108</sup> According to this decision, a sport club can be formed anywhere in the country where at least ten citizens ask for and receive the permission of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation. Any person can be a member if he or she is accepted by the executive and if he or she recognizes the rules of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation, and pays the dues regularly.

Only those who break the law are not admitted to the clubs. Admittedly, there is still very strict control over the new clubs by the central sport governing body. Nevertheless, it is now relatively easy to join a local sport club on the basis of individual initiative. Previously, sport clubs were organized by the central authority only.

In 1964 further decisions were made regarding mass sports.<sup>109</sup> These were some of the main resolutions of the Congress of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation:

(a) to organize special mass sport committees in both the county

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<sup>108</sup> Endrodi, op. cit., pp. 5-7. <sup>109</sup> Ibid., p. 7.



and national organs of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation;

(b) to separately allocate funds for the development of mass sport and hiking in the budget of clubs and to ensure that these funds are not spent for other purposes;

(c) to help the campaign for the building of sport fields, but with heavy emphasis on the use of local resources;

(d) to secure the help of and then train volunteer sport leaders.

The decisions and their practical implementation up to this time seem to have had more real success than the MHK and Kilian movements had over the years. During these two years the number of sport clubs increased by 500, the number of members by 130,000. One thousand new coaches and 41,000 new referees were trained, and 1,024 new sport fields or other facilities were built.<sup>110</sup> The number of people in the hiking and camping sport increased close to 100,000 in 1965. This is a very significant figure if compared with the 16,000 for 1957.<sup>111</sup> The introduction of "keep-fit" classes for housewives or working women is another attempt to increase participation in regular physical activity. Presently there are about 500 women participating in "keep-fit" classes in Budapest. Surprisingly, this program is not free; a monthly payment of about \$1.50 is required.<sup>112</sup> Apparently, the idea that non-competitors should be given free instruction is still a little foreign to the official philosophy.

Another result of the resolutions of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation is the installation of ski renting stations

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<sup>110</sup>Ibid., p. 6.    <sup>111</sup>Sport Life, April, 1965; June, 1965.

<sup>112</sup>Illustrated Sport, December 14, 1965.



which provide skiis for as little as twenty cents per day.<sup>113</sup> But the existing stations are unable to supply the demand. The number of boat renting stations has also been increased recently.<sup>114</sup>

Despite all claims to the contrary, it seems that though the number of participants in the various types of fitness tests was high, mass participation prior to 1963 was irregular and haphazard. Until then, the attention of coaches and sport clubs was focussed on the talented athlete. It is only since the new policy of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation, backed up by concrete administrative changes, that regular mass participation in sports has improved. Whether the policy will be significantly successful remains to be seen.

#### Sport Publications and Mass Media<sup>115</sup>

The great concern of the government for sport is reflected in the field of publications. There is a separate publishing house specializing only in issuing sport books and journals on a wide range of topics. The subjects range from sport pedagogy, training methods and sports to sport fiction.

The Nepsport (People's Sport) a newspaper dealing exclusively with sports, appears five times a week with 100,000 copies a day. The Kepes Sport (Illustrated Sport) is issued with 80,000 copies each weekend, Sportelet (Sport Life) once a month with 15,000 copies. While the former is for the general public, the latter is published mostly for specialists in the field of physical education and sport. In addition, several sports

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<sup>113</sup>Loc. cit.    <sup>114</sup>Endrodi, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>115</sup>Veto, op. cit., pp. 169-70.







have their own journals, as for example, tourism, chess, soccer, fencing and modelling do.

Newsreels are a regular feature of every movie shown and in these newsreels the latest major sport events are always covered. All daily newspapers have a sport page on which current sport events and problems are discussed.

A unique way of sport promotion is the organization of sport lectures. Courses consisting of six lectures are given by leading coaches and outstanding sportsmen. Attendance at one of these lectures can satisfy one of the requirements of the Kilian Physical Fitness Movement. It can be easily seen how lectures by world and Olympic champions can increase the popularity of a certain sport among the young. In November of 1965 such a lecture was given in one of the larger country towns before an audience of 500 by Andras Balczó, who won the world championship in the pentathlon at Leipzig.<sup>116</sup>

Since 1958 it has been the practice to publish a sport yearbook which not only summarizes the major changes in physical education and sport policy but reports on the major competitions and championships. It also contains the results of the first three place winners at all national championships in all the forty-one sports practiced in Hungary, from the Juvenile Class up to the Master division. In addition, it also includes the results of all international competitions in which Hungarian athletes participated. Since this book was published with only 2,900 copies in 1965, it is evidently only for the experts in physical education

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<sup>116</sup> People's Sport, November 19, 1965, p. 3.



and sport, but for them it is a useful source of information.

Another useful publication from the point of view of physical education research is the Bibliography of the Literature of School and Youth Physical Education in Hungary.<sup>117</sup> This 297 page book contains the list of all the major articles and books published in Hungary on school physical education from the earliest times up to the year 1962. This bibliography was compiled and published by the Hungarian College of Physical Education. Since 1962 the College has continued to publish a yearly bibliography of all significant literature related not only to physical education but to sport also.<sup>118</sup>

#### Facilities<sup>119</sup>

In the discussion of this topic it is perhaps best to present first the official statistics on the kind and number of sport facilities in Hungary.<sup>120</sup>

TABLE XVII

#### SPORT FACILITIES IN HUNGARY FOR THE YEAR 1965

Facility	Number	Facility	Number
Soccer fields	2,760	Running tracks	563
Handball fields & courts	988	Basketball fields & courts	339
Volleyball fields & courts	2,023	Skittle or bowling alleys	678
Tennis courts	611	Sport halls	544
Swimming pools	120	Boat houses	122
Other establishments	440		

<sup>117</sup>Laszlo Ambrus (ed.) Bibliography of the Literature of School and Youth Physical Education in Hungary (Budapest: Magyar Testnevelési Főiskola, 1962)

<sup>118</sup>Laszlo Ambrus and Jozsefne Balint (eds.), Bibliography of Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Literature (Budapest: Magyar Testnevelési Főiskola, 1965).

<sup>119</sup>Veto, op. cit., pp. 180-85. <sup>120</sup>Ibid., p. 182.



The figures in this list indicate the most popular sports. It is also clear from the list that while there seems to be a high number of facilities for sports in general, there are only 120 swimming pools in the country, and very few of these are indoors. These figures do not indicate a disinterest in swimming which is very popular in the summer, only the lack of funds for building swimming pools. In the winter in many parts of the country it is impossible for swimmers to train, and even the best swimmers and the water polo teams of Eger, Szolnok and Budapest, whose players usually form the generally highly successful national team, train in outdoor swimming pools heated by hot springs. An article in the Sportelet, discussing problems related to the development of swimming, states that most of the swimming pools primarily cater to the paying public and that for this reason swimmers have difficulty in securing time for training. The article claims that in the whole country only four swimming pools are used mainly for the training of swimmers.<sup>121</sup>

The most numerous and best sport facilities are located at Budapest. Of these, the Nepstadion (People's Stadium), built by the Communist government, is the most remarkable. Seating 100,000 spectators, it has a soccer field and all the modern facilities to run a track and field meet. The track events of the 1965 Universiade were held there and the European Track and Field Championships were held there in 1966. Not far from the Nepstadion is the Kisstadion (Small Stadium) with a seating capacity of

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<sup>121</sup>Illustrated Sport, July, 1965, p. 20.





20,000. It is suitable for basketball, handball, and other sports in the winter, and all the big ice sport events are held there. The National Sport Hall, accommodating 2,400, and which is proving too small for indoor sports, and the Millenaris Statium, where the motor-paced track races and other cycling competitions are held, are also near the Nepstadion.

Another sport center in Budapest is Margaret Island in the Danube River. The National Sport Swimming Pool, consisting of a fifty-meter pool and a diving pool outdoors and a twenty-five meter pool indoors, the Stadium of the Young Pioneers, a tennis stadium, a skeet shooting range, a large number of club houses having basketball, volleyball, handball and tennis courts and outdoor gymnastics areas, and many boat houses are located here. There is a large recreation swimming ground with several pools, and an extensive park area as well.

In addition, there are several large sport centers in the capital for each of the major clubs in Budapest. They usually include a stadium, with a seating capacity of at least 30,000 people, a sports hall and outdoor games and gymnastics areas. Besides these large centers, there are smaller ones scattered in all the districts of Budapest. Throughout the city there are also many swimming pools used mainly for recreational purposes.

Since soccer is the most popular sport in the country, soccer fields are found even in the smallest villages. In cities having a population of at least 10,000 the soccer stadium usually has all the facilities for track and field events and also seating arrangements for a



large number of people. In the larger provincial centers there are stadiums seating about 20-25 thousand spectators. There are about fifteen to twenty such stadiums at the present.

### Sport Financing

As in all the Communist-controlled countries, sport is supported by the state. Approximately \$17,500,000 is spent annually on sport.<sup>122</sup> It would, however, be erroneous to think that just because the Communist government places such a great emphasis on sport, there is an unlimited supply of funds. Sport budgets are allocated at the national and local level after a consideration of all the other expenses which the government has to meet. The lack of indoor and also of outdoor swimming pools and of facilities for mass participation illustrates this point well. The recent attempt on the part of the Hungarian Physical Education and Sport Federation to enlist local resources, volunteer labor of students and workers, in the building of facilities was inspired by the lack of funds, and, as was noted previously, it seems to be quite successful.

## HUNGARIAN SPORT SUCCESSES

### Hungary at the Olympic Games

After World War II there was an increased interest in the Olympic Games and the number of countries entering increased and has continued to increase ever since. As will be seen from the list of the results, Hungary continued to remain among the leading sports nations of the world.

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<sup>122</sup>Veto, op. cit., p. 170.



<u>London - 1948</u>	<u>1st placing</u>	<u>2nd placing</u>	<u>3rd placing</u>
United States	38	27	20
Sweden	17	12	16
Hungary	10	5	11

It was at this Olympics that Imre Nemeth, by winning the hammer throw, initiated Hungarian successes in this event. It was also here that Laszlo Papp began his unprecedented boxing career which culminated in his winning the Olympic title the third time in 1960 at Melbourne. Another remarkable victory was that of Ilona Elek in the women's foil event which she had won twelve years before in Berlin.

<u>Helsinki - 1952</u>	<u>1st placing</u>	<u>2nd placing</u>	<u>3rd placing</u>
United States	40	19	17
Soviet Union	22	29	19
Hungary	16	10	16

As the figures show, at this Olympic Games Hungary achieved her greatest success. This is all the more commendable since the entry of the Soviet Union made it more difficult for the other nations to achieve good results. It was here that Hungary won her first gold medal in soccer and that the current Hungarian hegemony in the modern pentathlon was established. Another unexpected and spectacular success was the performance of the women's swimming team which, besides other places, won gold medals in the 100- and 400-meters free-style races, the 4 x 100 meters free-style relay race, and in the 200 meters breast stroke. Surprisingly, since this Olympics the Hungarian women's swimming team has not been able to come even close to this level of performance.





<u>Melbourne - 1956</u>	<u>1st placing</u>	<u>2nd placing</u>	<u>3rd placing</u>
Soviet Union	37	29	32
United States	32	25	17
Australia	13	8	14
Hungary	9	10	7

It has been claimed by official Hungarian sources that the events of the Revolution of 1956 impeded the performance of Hungarian athletes.<sup>123</sup> And this claim may be well-founded. Despite this, however, Hungarian athletes performed sufficiently well to remain among the leading nations in the unofficial ranking.

<u>Rome - 1960</u>	<u>1st placing</u>	<u>2nd placing</u>	<u>3rd placing</u>
Soviet Union	43	29	31
United States	34	21	16
Germany	12	19	11
Italy	13	10	13
Hungary	6	8	7

In the Olympic Games at Rome, twenty-two world and seventy-two Olympic records were broken, and hundreds of competitors improved national records without even appearing among the placings in their events. Considering these conditions, the Hungarian athletes held their own at these Olympics. 'Almost one hundred out of the total party of 190 competitors finished among the first six.'<sup>124</sup> It was here that the tenth Hungarian victory in the Olympics was won in the individual sabre event.

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<sup>123</sup>Ibid., p. 143.

<sup>124</sup>Ibid., p. 146.



<u>Tokyo - 1964</u>	<u>1st placing</u>	<u>2nd placing</u>	<u>3rd placing</u>
United States	36	26	28
Soviet Union	30	31	35
Japan	16	5	8
Combined German Team	10	22	19
Italy	10	10	7
Hungary	10	7	5

The Olympics in Tokyo was the biggest of the Olympic Games to be held up to this time. The number of participating nations, the number of participants and the quality of performance were all record high. Although ranking only sixth, the Hungarians, as the figures indicate, did quite well at this Olympics also. The greatest success they achieved was in fencing, where they won four of the eight gold medals. Of the gold medal winners, the name of Imre Polyak should be mentioned, because at Helsinki, Melbourne and Rome he came close to victory, but had to be contented with a second place. Now, at his fourth Olympics, he finally succeeded in winning the championship in Greco-Roman style wrestling.

#### Other Sport Successes

To illustrate recent sport success of the Hungarian athletes, the results of the 1965 Universiade held in Budapest are given below:<sup>125</sup>

	<u>Gold</u>	<u>Silver</u>	<u>Bronze</u>
Austria	-	-	2
Bulgaria	1	1	1
Canada	1	-	3
Czechoslovakia	-	3	2
Cuba	-	2	2
France	3	2	3
Great Britain	1	4	4
Holland	-	3	1

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<sup>125</sup>

News item in the Hungarian News (Budapest), September 15, 1965.



	<u>Gold</u>	<u>Silver</u>	<u>Bronze</u>
Hungary	16	8	14
Italy	6	2	1
Japan	5	-	3
Poland	4	4	4
Romania	3	4	4
Soviet Union	13	27	15
Sweden	1	-	1
United States	14	9	9
West Germany	4	3	4
Yugoslavia	1	1	3

Even considering that the Universiade was held on home grounds, the performance of Hungarian athletes is quite outstanding.

Besides taking part in the Olympic Games, Hungary has also been regularly participating in the European and World Championships of the various sports. In 1965 Hungarian athletes won World Championships in the following events.<sup>126</sup>

Handball	women's team
Weightlifting	Imre Foldi
Fencing: Epee	Zoltan Nemere
Modern Pentathlon	Andras Balczó
Modern Pentathlon Team	

Hungary has seldom been exceptionally outstanding in track and field, although in general there have always been a few excellent performers and a good core of athletes in most events. In 1965 there were eleven Hungarian track and field athletes on the list of the world's ten best performers accounting for twelve of the best results:<sup>127</sup>

Zsivotsky -	first in hammer throwing with a world record of 73.74 meters
Kalocsai -	second in triple jump: 16.53 m.
Mrs. Kleiber -	second in discus: 57.86 m.
Miss Stugner -	third in discus: 58.98 m.

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<sup>126</sup>Illustrated Sport, December 7, 1965.      <sup>127</sup>Loc. cit.





Mrs. Rudas -	third in javelin: 58.35 m.
Mrs. Szabo -	fourth in 800 meters: 2:04.9 min.
Mecser -	sixth in 10,000 meters: 28:31.2 min.
	eighth in 5,000 meters: 13:40.0 min.
Kiss -	sixth in 20 km. walking: 1:29.08.2 min.
Ivanov -	sixth in triple jump: 16.35 m.
Varju -	sixth in shot put: 19.10 m.
Kulcsar -	sixth in javelin: 84.18 m.

In comparison, the number of places taken by some other countries on the list of the world's ten best performances in 1965 are given below.<sup>128</sup>

Australia	9
Great Britain	16
Poland	16
West Germany	14

As can be seen from this brief discussion of sport performance and from the list of Olympic results, Hungarian athletes have done quite well internationally in most sports, with the exception of skiing and hockey. Interestingly, during the course of Hungarian sport history, the decline of one sport coincided with the improvement of another sport. A good example of this phenomenon is the spectacular successes shown in table tennis during the pre-war years and the present decline of that sport, coinciding with a surprising improvement in the kayak and canoe sport. The decline of this sport in turn was followed by successes in the modern pentathlon and in weightlifting. The same phenomenon can be observed in track and field also. The great successes of the famous Hungarian runners of the middle 1950's (Iharos, Tabori, Rozsavolgyi and Kovacs), were followed by a slump in track performance and a current improvement in the throwing events. There has, however, been a steady pattern of Hungarian excellence in fencing and water polo and of late, in

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<sup>128</sup> Loc. cit.



soccer and the modern pentathlon.

### Reasons for Success

In view of the international achievements of Hungarian athletes, it is undoubtedly true that Hungary is one of the leading sport nations of the world. This becomes all the more evident if one considers Hungary's small population and her limited resources. Although it is difficult to accurately determine the factors accounting for the high standard of sport in Hungary, several explanations suggest themselves immediately. First of all, sport had been introduced and sport clubs had been formed in Hungary by the aristocracy and the well-to-do middle class relatively early in the nineteenth century. The present prestige of sport in Hungary and the system of quality training originates from this early era. During the years prior to World War II, the prestige and quality of sport further increased, due largely to government support of sport for nationalistic and military purposes. At this time the quality of coaching in the clubs was already at a high level.

With this background, it was relatively easy for the Communist government to maintain Hungary's international sport performance in an increasingly competitive field. The fact that under the Communist system sport provides one of the few ways for the individual to express himself without being inhibited by Communist ideology and that success in sport also provides exceptional privileges are probably two of the main reasons for the large number of devoted competitive sportsmen. This incentive for the individual together with all the administrative measures designed to develop both quality and mass sport are, to a great extent,



responsible for Hungary's sport achievements. The claim, made constantly by official spokesmen, that mass participation is the main cause of the high standard of Hungarian sport should not be either fully accepted or fully discounted. It is probably true, as it is claimed, that some talented sportsmen were discovered through one of the mass sport movements, but the 1963 sport reform indicates that all was not well in these mass sport movements. It is more likely that the special attention paid to the training of coaches and the organization of sport schools and training camps is the chief cause of international success.

Finally, an interesting point of view held mostly by physical educators should be mentioned in connection with sport achievement. According to this view, the physical education programs in the general and secondary schools, by emphasizing track and field and gymnastics, leaving about one-third of the time for games, ensure the development of a strong physique. Students interested in a special sport can then learn and perform better in their chosen field--in the school or outside clubs--because they are in good physical condition. According to this view, good physical condition implies the harmonious muscular development of the upper and lower body, and a high degree of cardio-respiratory fitness.

Since many of the sports in which Hungarians have been proficient as, for example, fencing or table tennis, receive little or no attention in physical education classes, this view deserves some consideration. However, to arrive at any valid conclusion regarding this view, it would be necessary to investigate the fitness of Hungarian school population and compare it to the fitness of students in other countries. Until this is done, the above view has to remain only a speculation.





## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It was the purpose of the study to set the historical background of physical education and sport in Hungary and to specifically study their present condition. In the course of the study the history of the country and the history of its education system were also examined. In order to facilitate both research and presentation, physical education and sport in Hungary were studied in the following three major periods: prior to 1918, between 1918 and 1945, and between 1945 and 1965.

Instead of attempting a chronological summary of sport and physical education in Hungary, it is more meaningful to call attention to the most unique features of the development and the present condition of sport and physical education in Hungary. It is these unique features which have made Hungarian physical education and sport into what it is, and for this reason, they merit special consideration.

The most significant single impetus in the early history of sport and physical education in modern Hungary was the involvement of the aristocracy in sport at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Count Szechenyi and Baron Wesselenyi's examples were followed by other members of the nobility, the burghers and the intelligentsia, and by the second half of the nineteenth century a favorable attitude arose among the upper classes towards sports and physical education. Besides the realization of the importance of physical education from a military point of view,



this favorable attitude was the main factor in bringing about the legislation which made physical education compulsory in the schools from 1868 on.

Though the interest of the upper classes in sport was, to a great extent, prestige and health orientated, it was also based on what appeared to be a national affinity towards physical activities, especially in the form of contests. The reason for this affinity towards competition originates in Hungarian history. From their arrival to the Carpathian Basin in 986 to the present, Hungarians have been forced to fight for national survival. At different times in the course of history, the Tartars, the Turks and the Austrians all threatened the existence of Hungary. The necessity to excel in physical skills, especially those of warfare, in order to survive, was the main factor in forming an attitude favorable to contests of physical prowess.

This desire to excel in competition involving bodily strength and skill was equally characteristic of the lower classes. However, in the nineteenth century there was not much opportunity for them to express it through sport, but they exhibited the same eagerness to compete and excel.

With the intensification of the struggle for independence from Austria in the mid-nineteenth century and the gaining of self-government through the formation of the Austro-Hungarian Dual Monarchy in 1867, the development of sport in Hungary became inevitably interwoven with nationalism. Up to the outbreak of World War I, the desire to display the independence from and the equality with Austria and to gain international recognition for Hungary were the main driving forces behind



Hungarian sport and physical education. The terms of the Treaty of Trianon, which besides depriving Hungary of two-thirds of its territory also placed three million Hungarians under foreign rule, reinforced the already existing connection between nationalism and sport and physical education and led to military overtones in sport and physical education in the period between 1918 and 1945. Since the formation of the Communist regime in Hungary, an open and direct connection between nationalism and sport is no longer in evidence. The Communist regime in turn has attempted to employ sport and physical education to raise its internal and international reputation. It has, however, been difficult for the regime to exploit the national pride of Hungarians in international sport successes for the support of its internal policies.

Aside from historical and ideological factors, other unique features of Hungarian physical education are the well-organized physical education and sport systems in the schools, universities and physical education teacher training colleges. The purposes of the curricula in all of these institutions is to ensure a high degree of physical fitness with an emphasis on all-round body development. Especially remarkable are the high performance standards required from students at physical education teacher training colleges with the assumption that their personal example will in turn inspire more student enthusiasm and participation. The extensive sports program in the general and secondary schools and in the colleges, directed toward national championships at each level, complete the formal physical education programs in these institutions and serve as a basis for quality sport.





Both the formal physical education programs and the overall sport program of the country are characterized by a balanced eclecticism. Admittedly, the formal physical education programs emphasize gymnastics and track and field because they are thought to be most suitable to develop all-round physical fitness, but a wide variety of sports is also included in the curricula. And in the sport programs of educational institutions and of the adult sport clubs, provisions are made for the support of all sports common to Europe.

Undoubtedly an essential and unique component and contributor to the success of the present program of physical education and sport in Hungary is the centralized structure of sport organizations. Centralization has helped to organize facilities and personnel in the most economical way and to promote competition at the local, national and international levels.

After a review of Hungarian physical education and sport, inevitably the question arises whether the Communist regime has introduced significant changes on the Soviet pattern into Hungarian physical education and sport. As can be ascertained from the discussion of the various eras, the Communist regime has retained or reintroduced most of the basic characteristics of the physical education and sport programs and systems which had existed prior to World War II. Naturally, physical education programs and the organization of sport were modified to correspond to the Communist philosophy of physical education. The most important contributions of the Communist regime to physical education and sports in Hungary are the development of an extensive sport life in the elementary



schooo, the creation of sport schools, the extension of training camps for both young and adult athletes, the establishment of a unified sport classification system in all sports, increased state support for sports and athletes and the introduction of mass sport movements, patterned after the Soviet GTO (Ready for Labor and Defence) movement, for the whole population.

It is evident from this study that physical education and sport possess a considerably prestige in Hungary today. This prestige is due partly to historical reasons and partly to the current sport policies of the Hungarian government. The traditional respect for excellence in physical skill and strength, arising out of the historical necessity to secure survival by warfare, has been reinforced by the job, travelling and monetary provisions afforded to outstanding athletes by the government. In view of the historical background of sport in Hungary and the government support it currently receives, it is understandable why, in spite of her small population, Hungary continues to rank among the leading sport nations of the world.

### Recommendation

Due to the difficulties experienced in condensing the great volume of historical material, it is recommended by the author that studies of a similar scope be attempted only at the doctoral level. For graduate students of the master's level, who are interested in physical education history, the study of a specific era in the history of a country is recommended.



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